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ART. I.—*State of Egypt, after the Battle of Heliopolis: preceded by general Observations on the physical and political Character of the Country. By Reynier, General of Division. Translated from the French. To which is prefixed, a Map of Lower Egypt. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1802.*

ART. II.—*Campaign between the French Army of the East and the British and Turkish Forces in Egypt. By General Reynier. Translated from the French. To which are added Observations and Corrections, by an English Officer of Hompesch's Dragoons. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Ridgway. 1802.*

THE most important part of general Reynier's work is his political and physical observations on Egypt; but, though we must return on another occasion to the disputed points of the campaign, it will be necessary to enlarge a little on the military details. The second of the works noticed at the head of this article contains only a small part of the first, viz. the campaign which decided the conquest of Egypt. General Reynier commences his narrative, in the original, from the date of the battle of Heliopolis, when the Turks were entirely defeated, and the army of the East had a period of rest. Bonaparte had fled, to act in a superior character, and had changed his military for a civil title, becoming the first magistrate of a most powerful nation. Kleber succeeded, little pleased, it is said, by being left in a situation which gave him responsibility without power, and required the exertion of all his energies with inadequate resources. It is sufficiently obvious, from the details before us, that Kleber disapproved the expedition, and the attempt to retain Egypt as a colony. There is great reason to presume that general Reynier adopted the same opinion; but Kleber, a zealous active soldier, exerted every effort to retain a country committed to his charge, and seems to have taken the wisest precautions for this purpose. These could not, however, save him from the poignard of the assassin; though, by whom the blow was remotely directed, we cannot discern. If we compare his opinions with those of his successor—if, at the same

time, we reflect, that, in every view, except as a zealous partizan of the colonisation, Menou was inadequate to so important a trust, we must, at least, suspect that the author of the death of Kleber was a zealous colonist. However this may be, one great object of general Reynier is to throw every blame on the civil and military conduct of Menou, and to prove that the loss of Egypt was to be attributed in part to the commander. For this purpose, and perhaps also from national rivalry, the conduct of the English commanders is unjustly aspersed: the numbers of the English troops and their allies is greatly exaggerated, while the power of the French is diminished; and though intimations are thrown out, that with this disproportioned force the French *must* have been at last conquered, yet, in other places it is more than hinted, that, under a judicious commander, they *might* have been victorious. As we have already said, the English troops are aspersed unjustly. It is asserted that they lay down in their boats on landing; that neither skill nor activity was displayed by the commanders or the privates; and that, whatever may have been the merit of the landing, it was due exclusively to the navy. Of the *fact* stated we need not speak: there are many thousand witnesses on each side. Of the conduct of the commanders we must be very inadequate judges; but, while we own that we discern no marks of active enterprise, we may be permitted to ask if the circumstances required it. The landing once effected, and the blockade completed, one great part of the business was concluded: activity and enterprise would only have sacrificed lives unnecessarily.

The great points on which the campaign at first hinged were the debarkation and the action of the 21st of March. It is singular, that very slight blame is attached to the commander for opposing the landing with a very insufficient force. The bravery of the British troops would probably have surmounted every obstacle, and general Reynier bears in effect, though not in words, ample testimony to their undaunted spirit and intrepidity: yet, if we can form a proper idea of the ground, the heights might have been defended with success. The action of the twenty-first was still more important: though in reality only a successful defence, yet it taught the French that the English troops were equally steady and brave. It appears highly probable, from various accounts, that the British army was attacked unexpectedly. This circumstance general Reynier seems not to have known, or has concealed, to add to the credit of the French troops. The cavalry, however, was disconcerted by a singular circumstance. On the first debarkation the soldiers sheltered themselves in cavities made in the sand-hills, on the ground where the enemy afterwards charged: in these cavities the horses stumbled, and the whole line was consequently checked. General Reynier himself, on the right, opposed to our left, refused his wing, for



reasons not sufficiently explained; and when the left of the French was repulsed, and his wing might have assisted the reserve, it seems never to have been advanced. The fortune of the day might have been changed, if some of these circumstances had been different. We may indeed admit, as we have in effect done, that a kind of torpor invaded the British troops after the action of the twenty-first. But, if the reasons alleged do not sufficiently justify the commander, another circumstance may be added—the confident expectation of a reinforcement from the Red Sea. Had Alexandria been attacked at an early period, it might, according to general Reynier, and even the accounts of English officers, have been carried: but the incapacity and *insouciance* of Menou could not, at that time, have been known; and had the attempt not succeeded, the commander would have incurred the blame of unjustifiable temerity.

Such are the leading points on which, in effect, the early part of the campaign depended. General Reynier engages in an ample detail of the misconduct of Menou; and points out the various circumstances in which he omitted to oppose, with success, the invasion of the English. In the second of the publications before us, his injurious representations are opposed by the details of the British gazettes, and by some observations of sir Robert Wilson, lieutenant-colonel of Hompesch's dragoons; but as the colonel's work is now in our hands, we shall soon return to the subject under his guidance. Reynier's account of the battle at Belbeis with the Turks is so pointedly different from colonel Holloway's, that they appear not to belong to the same event. We shall select, as a specimen, the narrative of the action of the twenty-first of March. We copy from the translation published by Messrs. Robinson.

‘ An hour before day-light the French troops assembled at the advanced posts. General Lanusse believed that the English redoubts might be easily carried by grenadiers, supported by the head of the columns. He marched his two brigades in close column, intending to form them beyond the main redoubt and the Roman Camp, and fall upon the right of the English army. The brigade of general Silly was to march directly against the redoubt; that of general Valentin to follow the shore, passing between the sea and the Roman Camp. The centre was to march close to the right of general Silly's brigade, following it as a second line; and on the first success vigorously to attack (along with the right wing) the position of redoubts of the enemy's centre. But the division of the French centre into two bodies, each with its separate commanding officer, and subdivided again by the detaching of its grenadiers, deprived it of that combined action necessary to the complete accomplishment of its orders. The right wing was to form between the lakes and the centre, to attack the opposite wing of the enemy, as soon as the enemy's right was broken. They were also to detach a corps between the two lakes to occupy the left of the English, and prevent their sending a body against Alex-

andria; which, from their superiority in numbers, might have extremely embarrassed the French. This wing was to be supported by general Bron, detached with two regiments of cavalry to the bason of lake Marcotis, and also by a false attack of dromedaries on the side of Bedah. It was the more confidently to be expected that this false attack would greatly occupy the English, and prevent detachments from their left wing, as they were ignorant of the junction of the army before Alexandria, and might expect to be attacked on that side; and these movements, if successful, would give the advantage of acting with equal forces on their right. The cavalry were to march in a second line behind the infantry, till the left had broken the line of the English; when they were to seize the moment of disorder, to decide the victory by a vigorous charge.

The false attack was commenced by the dromedaries before daylight. They surprised the first redoubt, made twenty prisoners, fired with a cannon which they found there upon the other redoubts, and greatly attracted the enemy's attention. General Lanusse then put his troops in motion, the officers of the other divisions doing the same. A company of carabineers of the 4th light soon took a small post with one piece. General Silly's brigade proceeded against the main redoubt. General Lanusse, at that moment, perceiving that general Valentin had quitted the sea-shore, and that, as he was directing his march towards the redoubt and the Roman Camp, his brigade was checked by a heavy fire, hastened to the spot, rallied, and led them back to the charge. At that moment he received a mortal wound. The impulse he had given the troops began to abate. No orders were given to form this brigade, which was dispersed by the enemy's fire behind the sand-hills. The 4th light, forming the head of general Silly's brigade, met, near the angle of the redoubt, the 32d, which, in the dark, had gone too much to the left. A little disorder arose from this accident. The 4th light, unable to clear the ditches of the redoubt, proceeded round their left, and were repulsed by the first line of the English. The 18th, separated from the 4th, by the mistake of the 32d, were unable to force the redoubt.

The 32d, commanded by general Rampon, afterwards attacked the first line of the English, and was repulsed, Rampon having his horse shot under him, and his clothes pierced with balls. Sornet, adjutant commandant, was mortally wounded in advancing, and the grenadiers under his command could not penetrate the enemy's lines. General d'Estin followed the road of Aboukir, and advanced in the interval between the right and the centre of the enemy's first line, where, being received with a sharp fire from the second line and the redoubts, he retired from the field, after being slightly wounded. Hausser, who commanded the 21st light infantry, under D'Estin, had his leg and thigh carried away, and that demi-brigade remained without an officer to command it, in the midst of the English army, a regiment of which was detached to cut off their retreat. The second battalion effected their retreat, but three companies of the third battalion, partly composed of Copts, enlisted in Upper Egypt, and who were detached as *sharp shooters*, were compelled to lay down their arms. Thirty-seven men who guarded the colours refused to yield, and were all slain. Eppler, chief of brigade, who had marched a little



more to the right, was wounded, and his grenadiers repulsed. The small detached bodies forming the centre were too advanced, before their left was secured by the taking of the main redoubt. Almost all the corps had attacked in one line, without support, and insulated from each other. Their movements had been disconcerted by the darkness of the hour, and several of their principal officers were killed. The soldiers remaining exposed to a heavy fire, without receiving orders, dispersed themselves behind the sand-hills.

‘The right wing remained, according to the preconceived dispositions, at the distance of something less than cannon shot from the centre of the English, waiting the success of the left, to begin its attack. As soon as general Reynier heard of the brave Lanusse’s wound, and the disorder of the centre, he made his wing advance to their support, giving orders to general Damas to remain with the 13th, between the two lakes, to occupy the enemy’s left, and to push some *sharp shooters* towards the canal.

‘After the failure of this first attack, the dispersion of the troops, and the loss of general Lanusse, further efforts were useless; because, before the action, every expectation of success had been founded on a first shock. Several of the principal officers being slain, three-fifths of the army that were dispersed could not rally and form again under the enemy’s fire, to hazard any new attack. The right wing was too weak to make any attempt by itself on the enemy’s centre, protected by the main redoubt, the Roman Camp, and their right wing. If the French had retired at this moment, their loss would not have been very great; the English would have considered this affair merely as a general reconnoitring; and the army would have remained strong enough to keep the field, and to attempt some new movement on the first favourable occasion.’ p. 262.

There is but one conclusion to be drawn from this laboured narrative—that the French were defeated in every point; and when general Reynier says that he made his left wing advance, it is immediately admitted that they effected nothing. It is well known that Reynier, from the beginning to the end, refused his wing; nor does he attempt to say, that, when ordered to advance, it did so. We have seen the plan of the attack, which Reynier claims as his own, in which his wing was directed to advance and assist the centre. In short, the most rooted hatred to Menou and the English seems to have dictated every part of the narrative; and the confident assertions of the author cannot, we suspect, be supported by facts. We mean in the present number to consider sir Robert Wilson’s narrative, and shall therefore only add, that general Reynier must support his representations by some authority, before he can oppose, with success, sir Robert’s returns of the numbers of both armies. These are copied from the originals, which, if general Reynier be correct, must have been falsified—an accusation for which there is not the slightest foundation. Menou undoubtedly committed many errors; but he was opposed in his own army by a powerful party, and obeyed, we apprehend, with a sullen reluctance by



his officers and men. It may be doubted whether, on some occasions, he was not betrayed. The English force is apparently exaggerated, to save the credit of the French troops, and the languor of its exertions more fully dwelt on, to criminate the general. From all these circumstances, we may fairly conclude that Reynier's memoirs will not be the source from which the cautious historian will in future copy. We need not enlarge on the subsequent details, since they abound with similar, and, as we shall have occasion to show, equally unfounded reflexions.

The physical and political account of Egypt is, as we have said, very interesting. In short, it conveys more real information in a narrow compass than we remember to have seen. The difference of the level of the Red Sea and the Mediterranean is not now first communicated; but the whole passage is very interesting.

‘ The manner in which the chain of mountains on each coast of the Red Sea terminates, and the low lands which form a species of valley in the isthmus of Suez—a valley inclosed on each side with sand-hills, stretching to the foot of the mountains, particularly on the side of Asia—would lead us to suppose that in former times there was a communication between the two seas by a strait, since filled with sands brought thither by the opposing currents, and the accumulation of the mud of the Nile at the mouths of that river. Some extraordinary change which has altered the level of the Mediterranean—since that is twenty-five feet lower than the Red Sea—may have contributed to the first formation of the isthmus, which has since been greatly increased by the mud of the Nile.

‘ The moving sand-hills extend (as will be seen in the map) from Abouroak and Bir-deodar beyond El-Arish. They occupy the entire space lying between the Mediterranean and the mountains of Arabia Petrea, whose base they cover. The winds, which in this country are considerably uniform, have given the same direction to all the sand-hills. They stretch generally from the north-west to the south-east, and are separated by narrow valleys. It is only in the lower of these sand-hills, usually lying at the foot of higher ground of the same nature, that water is found by sinking wells of several feet in depth. Palm-trees, which grow on these sands, are a sure indication of water.

‘ These moving sands, and the inequality of their surface, render a march particularly toilsome, and are the greatest obstacle to the passage of the desert by an army.’ p. 4.

The wind has evidently raised the sand-hills, which destroy the communication; but it suggests some important views. From the face of the country, it is evident that the isthmus did not at one time exist. The result then is, that the level of the Mediterranean must have been higher, and the current at the straits consequently greater. In effect, we find a great part of Dalmatia gained from the sea; and, at a distance from the present shore of the Crimea, are marks of a former sea, and of the

rings by which ships were fastened to the rock. We omit many similar facts. So far as respects Egypt, the stoppage of the ancient channels of the river, which has occasioned immense lakes, nearly balances the land gained by the deposition of the mud of the Nile; or the depredations of the sea are perhaps the most considerable.

Among the political details, we find an account of the system of war adopted, and the fortifications constructed by the French. The inhabitants were, it is said, 'to be won by their attentions and civilised.' Bonaparte, it is added, 'rapidly seized the system for these purposes.' The comment is wanting: but sir Robert Wilson will supply it; and if his evidence be suspected, even Denon will serve the purpose. As the system was 'seized with rapidity,' the massacre at Alexandria was perhaps the first part.

To fortify Egypt must be a very difficult task. Even Alexandria cannot be made a strong post. This, however, and Ramanieh, are the only spots that can be fortified with tolerable success. The numerous forts garrisoned by the French troops divided their army too much, and compelled them to yield in succession, with little loss to the assailants. With the command of the sea, Egypt may be held by the two posts just mentioned. Without it, the tenure of any possessor is insecure. One great object of the French, as the fortifications must be necessarily weak, was to form roads, so as to defend Egypt by an army. This object was not completed; and indeed no army could defend Egypt, if the entrance to Alexandria were open, as it must be, to a superior naval power.

The account of the Arabs, though short, is peculiarly satisfactory; that of the Fellahs has, however, greater claims to novelty.

'The Fellahs, or cultivators of Egypt, have a great resemblance in character to the Arabs, and are probably descended from a mixture of the first irruption of Arabs with the ancient inhabitants. They preserve the same distinction of families; and those that live together in a village form a species of tribe. The animosities between families or villages are as strong as those among the Arabs: but the extreme dependence of the Fellahs has robbed them of the lofty and independent temper of the Arab. The Fellahs vegetate under a feudal power, the more rigorous because it is divided, and because their oppressors form part of the government which ought to protect them. But, with all the disadvantages of their situation, they endeavour incessantly to imitate the independence of the Arabs, and are proud of calling them ancestors.

'The Fellahs are bound by families to the lands they cultivate. Their labour is the property of the *mukhtesims*, or lords of villages, of whom I shall speak hereafter. Although the Fellahs cannot be sold, their condition is more wretched than absolute slavery. They indeed possess and transmit to their children the lands allotted to their fami-



lies; but they cannot alienate them, and scarcely can let any part without the permission of their lord. If, wearied out with oppression, a Fellah quits his village, the mukhtesim has a right to pursue and arrest him. The hospitality practised by the Fellahs in common with the Arabs opens an asylum to the fugitives in other villages, where they hire themselves as labourers, and remain in safety, if the proprietor is not sufficiently powerful to wrest them from the place. They are also received and sheltered among the Arabs.

‘ The Fellahs who remain in a village partially deserted by the cultivators are more unfortunate than the fugitives. They are compelled to support all the labour and pay all the dues of the fugitives; and, often reduced to despair, they entirely abandon the village, and engage themselves as domestics of the Arabs of the desert, if they can find no other secure refuge. Many villages are to be seen wholly deserted, and the lands belonging to them uncultivated; the inhabitants taking this method to punish the excessive avidity of their lords.’  
P. 59.

‘ It would be difficult to conceive men in a more unhappy condition than the Fellahs, if they were acquainted with any medium of comparison, if their character and religious prejudices did not incline them to resignation, and if they were not persuaded that the cultivator of the land is destined to enjoy no milder fate. It is not enough that they pay to the government and the mukhtesims the larger share of their harvest, that they are compelled to cultivate without hire the oussieh or the particular land of their lords, that the mukhtesims daily lay heavier impositions upon them; the governors of the provinces moreover require subsistence for their troops, forced presents, and almost every species of arbitrary exaction, the names of some of which add insult to oppression, such as—*raff el medzalim*, the composition for tyranny. It is comparatively little that the laws are feeble and ill administered, that redress is not to be obtained by the cultivators without bribes, that being unable to purchase redress, and assuming the right to obtain it for themselves, they are obliged to pay for that offence, and that even flight cannot always screen them from these oppressions; to aggravate the evil, the Arabs who immediately surround their lands tax them for their protection against other tribes;—a protection in words only, since, notwithstanding the contribution, they do not the less plunder the harvests of their tributaries; and when the government pursue and disperse the Arabs, punishments and new exactions fall upon the heads of the unfortunate cultivators, whom the Arabs always force into their party.

‘ To this miserable condition is to be attributed the general indolence of the Fellahs, their temperance, their distaste for every species of enjoyment, and the habit of burying their money; which last custom, however, is common to them with all the other classes. Certain to draw upon themselves by an appearance of easy circumstances new contributions, often beyond their means, they are peculiarly careful to disguise what they possess. Very different from the European farmers, who put on their gayest apparel when they visit their landlords, the Fellahs studiously cover themselves with the worst of their apparel when they appear before their lords.’ P. 67.



The merchants and artisans of the cities are not much happier than the Fellahs. The Cherifs of Arab origin form a more elevated class; and the proprietors of villages, living on their rents, chiefly the descendents of the officers who conquered Egypt under Selim II. are of superior rank. The number of the last, however, was greatly diminished by the oppressions of the Mamelukes, with whose origin and character we are now well acquainted. The following remarks are curious:

‘ These slaves are of various countries. Some are Russians and Germans, taken in war; but those which are most in number, and most esteemed, are from Georgia, Circassia, and other parts of Mount Caucasus. These, more frequently than any other, arrive at the highest employments. This domination, of men born in Mount Caucasus over Egypt, is a circumstance worthy of notice. Going back to the earliest times of history, we find Egypt conquered by Cambyses, and governed by Persians sprung from these mountains; the Mamelukes seized upon Egypt after the caliphs, and were replaced by Turks, also springing from Caucasus.

‘ No historical monument proves that the conquest of Cambyses was not preceded by some other emigration from these mountains. Traditions speak indeed of conquests made by Sesostri; but when we consider the repugnance which the inhabitants of Egypt have always shown to the quitting the banks of the Nile, it cannot be imagined Sesostri made his conquests by emigrations from Egypt; especially as, on the other hand, we see from the earliest time the population of Caucasus sending soldiers to Egypt. This observation does not at all affect the question so long agitated, of the origin and antiquity of the people of Egypt; or of the influence which that nation had in the remotest ages, as the cradle of the arts and sciences, on the civilisation and sciences of other countries. Egypt may have received soldiers from Caucasus, without the nation having originated in Asia. A superior class, exercising the administration of the government, and performing the functions of religion, may have been instructed in the sciences, and that to the exclusion of the rest of the people, without having received the principles of their science from any other nation. A few sages might travel into other countries; instruct nations; civilise them; and, in governing them, direct their conquests; without these colonies and conquests having been made by great emigrations from Egypt.

‘ If the magnificent ruins of temples in Upper Egypt are monuments of perfection in the arts and sciences, are they not also monuments of the slavery and superstition of the people? Zodiacs cut on some of these temples, by which has been ascertained the age in which they were built; the observation that the most ancient are those nearest the cataracts and sources of the Nile, and that the figures painted and cut on these monuments have the African character; are facts from which it may be concluded that the population of Egypt, or rather the class that introduced civilisation and arts into Egypt, emigrated from Africa, following the course of the Nile.’ p. 87.

The revenues of Egypt have been computed from thirty-five

to forty millions of livres; but under the French government they were from twenty to twenty-five millions, about a million sterling. The population of Egypt is under three millions; that of Cairo from 250 to 300 thousand.

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ART. III.—*History of the British Expedition to Egypt; to which is subjoined, a Sketch of the present State of that Country and its Means of Defence. Illustrated with Maps, and a Portrait of Sir Ralph Abercromby. By Robert Thomas Wilson, Lieutenant Colonel of Cavalry in his Britannic Majesty's Service, and Knight of the Imperial Military Order of Maria Theresa. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Egerton. 1802.*

WHEN facts, published in one account, are expressly contradicted in another, it is often difficult to discover on which side the truth reposes.

‘Quod verbo dicitur, verbo negare sat est.’

In the present instance, precluding for a moment every other consideration, we shall merely consider the evidence of two persons who stand apparently on equal ground, and whose assertions are essentially adverse. And, in comparing their narratives, we must first inquire which is the more generally credible. The writer who contradicts facts commonly known, lessens the force of his evidence in other points. In this instance general Reynier's accuracy may be brought to a test. He has particularly committed himself in two assertions, which are capable of being refuted by numerous witnesses; and his other assertions of course become questionable. He tells us that the English troops lay down in their boats when rowed to land, and that the forty-second regiment laid down their arms when attacked on the twenty-first of March. These were not transactions in the dark or in a corner. They have been for months publicly denied, without the slightest support on the part of the asserter. Again, when we see a general prejudice pervade a publication, we necessarily suspect the author, even where he appears most impartial. This observation will fairly apply to general Reynier; for, whatever may have been his opinion of English spirit, to lessen their character must add to the criminality or folly of Menou. These then are circumstances which must lead an impartial inquirer rather to confide in the present author than the French general. We might indeed have added, that the French dispatches, perhaps penned in haste, have not been, in every instance, remarkable for their accuracy, but that we once heard a person warmly reprehended for daring to suspect that Bonaparte himself was capable of exaggeration.

While then, on general grounds, we are rather inclined to credit sir Robert Wilson than his opponent, we have additional reasons from many collateral circumstances. In several of the disputed points, particularly the returns of the English army and the French garrisons, he gives the official papers; and it is rather a deeper crime, than gilding a narrative with colours not its own, to add a signature to a fallacious statement. With respect to the kindness with which each nation is represented to have been received in Egypt, we can perhaps believe both. Neither could be more oppressive than their former masters; and a change, even unaccompanied with any alleviation, is some relief. We suspect, however, that the English *was* the most favoured nation; for *they* were guilty of no wanton massacres, no oppressive exactions. They paid for services, and even rewarded kind intentions. We see also that an Englishman could wander *more* than twenty paces from his column without danger of assassination, and could visit the pyramids without the aid of a considerable detachment. We shall then rest on sir Robert Wilson's account with some security; and, for the reasons assigned, give the preference to his evidence, without being suspected of too great partiality. We ought, however, to add, that Reynier, if he have any regard for his own character, cannot pass over contradictions so decisive without some notice. Authorities which may contribute to the force of an *ipse dixit* should be subjoined to a future edition of the narrative. We must not, however, wholly pass over the circumstances which gave some *colour* to his reports. We perceive in the general orders that the troops were commanded to *sit* down in the boats; and, in the attack of the twenty-first, the forty-second regiment was certainly for a time broken. These facts, nevertheless, do not warrant the representation.

If, however, the statement now before us remain uncontradicted, it will add greatly to the character of the English army and its leaders. We may perhaps ask, why their knowledge of the country was not more particular and correct, when they had the information of Turkey at their command, while the French were surrounded with faithless friends and forced allies? This we cannot answer; but the local knowledge was evidently defective in the most essential points. On the other hand, the same deficiency was conspicuous in the French army; for Menou in effect resigned Egypt when he opposed the landing with such an inadequate force, and when afterwards he failed in concentrating his troops. The campaign was, however, on the whole, highly brilliant; for when Englishmen fought with equal numbers of the veteran troops of France, they always obtained a signal victory. In the affair of the twenty-first of March, the French were assailants, in greater numbers, and, notwithstanding the advantage of a little surprise, were completely defeated.



The narrative of sir Robert Wilson is clear and judicious. He refers always to authorities which stamp authenticity on his details; and, when these are necessarily wanting, the calm good sense, the clear unadorned account of the historian give the strongest proof of his veracity. He was in no subordinate situation, and seems a very adequate judge of what he saw.

‘As to the contents, I solemnly declare to the British nation, that I have endeavoured to relate a faithful narrative of a campaign, which, combined with the naval victories, and their own magnanimity, have elevated the glory of our country to the proudest altitude. Nor should England pride herself alone on the military services of the Egyptian army: throughout the war her troops have fought with equal gallantry: but she may also boast that the moral conduct of that army has exalted her fame on a foundation more durable than victory, erecting her monuments of honour upon the gratitude and admiration of mankind.

‘It was impossible to travel through a country (unattended by any escort, as was frequently the case, experiencing the kindest attentions of friendship from every individual of a people hostile by religion, prejudice, and former ill-usage to Europeans) without reflecting with considerable gratification on the causes which produced these acts of hospitality in favour of Englishmen. There was a vanity justly indulged in reflecting, that a Frenchman could never venture to pass through the same districts, even when the French army ruled with uncontested dominion, unless guarded by a force sufficient to command his security.

‘In the Deserts of Libya, and throughout Egypt, a British uniform was equally respected with the turban of Mahometanism, and the word of an Englishman esteemed sacred as the Koran.’ P. xi.

A singular circumstance, however, occurs in the course of the narrative, where it is said, in a note, that the Mahometans abused ‘the Christian dogs’ in the presence of the English, thinking, that, as their faith was somewhat different from that of the French, they were *not* Christians.

The remainder of the preface relates to general Reynier’s mis-representations; and the passage is transcribed in the second translation of ‘The Campaign in Egypt.’ The chief object is to correct the false statement of numbers; and we observe that in six corps only, 4200 men in general Reynier’s narrative are reduced by sir Robert to 1143, a difference of more than 3000. The French army nearly doubled the British; and when, in some altercation respecting the antiquities, Menou observed to lord Hutchinson, after the capitulation, ‘that he was certainly obliged to yield to a general supported by so many thousand men, and with such an artillery,’ his lordship answered, ‘that these reproaches were not handsome, since he had never cast any on him for allowing an inferior army to gain the country; nor should he even now make such a recrimination’ (p. 219).

We have enlarged sufficiently on the disagreement in the two narratives, and given a general outline of the present author's merits. We shall subjoin a somewhat more detailed account of the expedition.

Sir Robert Wilson is not the decided panegyrist of the commanders. Having seen with his own eyes, he advances, in every instance, his own opinions, though with proper deference, and due allowance for the undiscovered nature of the country. The events of the thirteenth of March, when the army first advanced, were disastrous; and sir Robert Wilson offers his remarks very freely.

‘ This action had been highly creditable to the gallantry and discipline of the British, whose movements were executed with the same steadiness and accuracy as if at a review in England. The conduct, exertions, and animating example of the general officers universally, were never exceeded; and when it is remembered, that the guns were dragged by sailors through a deep and burning sand, the rapidity of their movements and their success is highly meritorious. Happy would it have been, however, that the army had never advanced beyond the first captured position; as far as that it had gloriously triumphed. The loss which it had sustained, though considerable, was unavoidable; but it was a fatal movement in the event which brought it so considerably within cannon shot of the second position, and where it was halted so long. If instead even of finally abandoning so important an object, part of the army had been marched to the left, obliquely over the ground which lay between Lake Maadie and Lake Marcotis subsequently inundated, and then formed to the right when the left reached the line of Pompey's Pillar, thus attacking the south front of the position, whilst the right of the eastern front was attacked at the same time, no doubt can now exist of its having been easily carried, and most probably the towns of Alexandria, Old and New. Forts Crétin and Caffarelli could have opposed but little resistance; and if they had held out, must have surrendered long before the arrival of general Menou. Let it not be objected that this knowledge was only acquired at the subsequent surrender of the city. Had not the appearance of that ground, from the nitrous salt upon the surface, and partial sappiness, been deemed evident proofs of its total marshy nature, its examination would have opened the weak part of the position, and rendered the movement obvious; but the eye was then unacquainted with the phenomena, and the deception was natural. The loss of the English was about 1100 men killed and wounded. The French of course did not suffer so much, but above 500 of them were put *hors de combat*: four field pieces were also taken, and a great quantity of ammunition. Sir Ralph Abercrombie in the action had a horse shot.’  
P. 22.

In the landing, which is described with singular precision and perspicuity, had sir Sidney Smith's advice been adopted, the surrender of Aboukir must have followed without an effort



to preserve it. He advised a previous attack of the fort at the entrance of Lake Maadie; in consequence of which the French would have suffered severely from the fire of the gun-boats, which would have borne on them in their retreat. Sir Ralph Abercrombie was however, with reason, unwilling to divide his force, as he knew not by what numbers his landing would be opposed. The action of the thirteenth, though highly creditable to the steadiness of the British army, is represented as disastrous, and the attempt to advance as productive of no particular advantage. On the twenty-first the French attacked our army; but this is considered to be a striking error in Menou, as the great object of sir Ralph Abercrombie was to advance; and he might have been soon attacked in an advantageous position which the French commander abandoned to become the assailant. Yet Reynier seems to admit the propriety of the attack, and claims, in conjunction with Lanusse, the merit of the plan—of a plan in which he, nevertheless, refused to co-operate. The event is known: the French were repulsed with disgrace, by one wing only of the British.

We have said that the attack was unexpected; yet sir Sidney Smith received intelligence of the intention from an Arab. The army was, as usual, under arms before day-break; but the commander in chief was not at his post, nor was there a sufficient supply of ammunition. We observe, in another account, directions to the soldiers to lie on their arms, as the enemy may be desperate enough 'to make an attack by night.' This order is dated March twenty-first, and seems, from Mr. Anderson's representation, to refer to the action itself. It was, however, evidently issued on the evening of the battle, as it constitutes an order of general Hutchinson's. We consider this action as more decisive than sir Robert Wilson is willing to believe it; since it accustomed the troops to the French, and taught them that, with courage and steadiness, they were not so invincible as they appeared on the plain of Marengo, or the hills of Jemappes.

Rosetta and the adjoining fortresses fell in succession; but the conquest of Ramanieh completely divided the French force. The great and general error of Menou was, as we have observed already, the separation of his troops; and Reynier is decidedly right in thinking that Egypt ought to be defended by an army. The post of Ramanieh connected Cairo and Alexandria; and, after its fall, each fortress could not but yield to forces greatly inferior, on the whole, to those of the defenders.

The Turks could not always be restrained from mangling and cutting off the heads of their prisoners. This they justified by the massacre at Jaffa, a circumstance that introduces details at which humanity will shudder. The massacre of 3,800 prisoners for the fault of 500, which, however, in these was not



voluntary, is an almost insupportable reflexion; but the tale has been already told in our own language, we believe by Mr. Baldwin, and we can only add that, on the testimony of Assalini, a physician of considerable ability, the plague was occasioned among the Turks by the putrefying carcasses that surrounded them, and that it afterwards made considerable ravages in the French army. The *necis artifices* thus perished by their own device; but the principal escaped. It is well observed that such a fact should not be alleged without some proofs, but that it would be ungenerous to commit individuals who gave the information. The writer adds that it was Bonn's division which fired, but that the general was absent. Kleber remonstrated strongly against the firing, but Kleber is no more; and the chief of the *etat-major* refused to execute the order unless written. Berthier, however, was sent to enforce it; for writing would remain. But what can be said to the second accusation? We shall transcribe the passage without a remark.

‘ Bonaparte finding that his hospitals at Jaffa were crowded with sick, sent for a physician, whose name should be inscribed in letters of gold, but which from weighty reasons cannot be here inserted: on his arrival he entered into a long conversation with him respecting the danger of contagion, concluding at last with the remark, that something must be done to remedy the evil, and that the destruction of the sick at present in the hospital was the only measure which could be adopted. The physician, alarmed at the proposal, bold in the confidence of virtue and the cause of humanity, remonstrated vehemently, representing the cruelty as well as the atrocity of such a murder: but finding that Bonaparte persevered and menaced, he indignantly left the tent, with this memorable observation: “Neither my principles, nor the character of my profession, will allow me to become a human butcher; and, general, if such qualities as you insinuate are necessary to form a great man, I thank my God that I do not possess them.”

‘ Bonaparte was not to be diverted from his object by moral considerations; he persevered, and found an apothecary who (dreading the weight of power, but who since has made an atonement to his mind by unequivocally confessing the fact) consented to become his agent, and to administer poison to the sick. Opium at night was distributed in gratifying food, the wretched unsuspecting victims banqueted, and in a few hours five hundred and eighty soldiers, who had suffered so much for their country, perished thus miserably by the order of its idol.

‘ Is there a Frenchman whose blood does not chill with horror at the recital of such a fact? Surely the manes of these murdered unoffending people must be now hovering round the seat of government, and . . . . .

‘ If a doubt should still exist as to the veracity of this statement, let the members of the institute at Cairo be asked what passed in their sitting after the return of Bonaparte from Syria: they will relate that the same virtuous physician, who refused to become the

destroyer of those committed to his protection, accused Bonaparte of high treason in the full assembly, against the honour of France, her children, and humanity; that he entered into the full details of the poisoning of the sick, and the massacre of the garrison, aggravating these crimes by charging Bonaparte with strangling, previously at Rosetta, a number of French and Copts, who were ill of the plague; thus proving that this disposal of his sick was a premeditated plan, which he wished to introduce into general practice. In vain Bonaparte attempted to justify himself\*; the members sat petrified with terror, and almost doubted whether the scene passing before their eyes was not illusion. Assuredly all these proceedings will not be found in the minutes of the Institute; no, Bonaparte's policy foresaw the danger, and power produced the erasure; but let no man, calculating on the force of circumstances which may prevent such an avowal as is solicited, presume on this to deny the whole: there are records which remain, and which in due season will be produced. In the interim, this representation will be sufficient to stimulate enquiry; and, Frenchmen, your honour is indeed interested in the examination.' P. 74.

We may add, that, if these circumstances be true, the physician, from every concurring observation, must be DESGENNETTES. It may be asked if none escaped. On this point we find no information; but we have reason to think that mysterious appearances put a very few on their guard, who rejected the drugged posset, and escaped to this country. If the whole be authentic, we wish the tale to be translated into every known language, addressed to its author and contriver, with the simple motto—'Thou art the man!'

The point on which much future success rested was the acquisition of Ramanieh, which was obtained with little loss, though the garrison escaped to Cairo. It has been said that the whole might have been captured by an immediate attack on the fortress, which was not capable of great resistance. Sir Robert Wilson states the arguments for and against the *coup de main* with much plausibility; yet perhaps, for so young an officer, somewhat too confidently. We regret, without blaming, that better local knowledge had not been obtained; and we would hint, with the utmost deference, that sufficient advantage was

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\* Bonaparte pleaded that he ordered the garrison to be destroyed, because he had not provisions to maintain them, or strength enough to guard them; and that it was evident if they had escaped, they would act against the French, since amongst the prisoners were five hundred of the garrison of El Arish, who had promised not to serve again, (they had been compelled in passing through Jaffa by the commandant to serve); and that he destroyed the sick to prevent contagion, and save themselves from falling into the hands of the Turks; but these arguments, however specious, were refuted directly, and Bonaparte was at last obliged to rest his defence on the positions of Machiavel. When he afterwards left Egypt, the scavans were so angry at being left behind, contrary to promise, that they elected the physician president of the institute; an act which spoke for itself fully.'



not taken of the army's division and disaffection, of their dislike to the service, and their indignation at having been forsaken. The behaviour of the troops which guarded the convoy under the command of colonel Cavalier, fully justifies the dependence that might be placed on these circumstances.

This delay, which, with every allowance, seems to be singular, is explained and apologised for by our author from the difficulty of forwarding the necessary supplies. The troops, however, at last advance and join the Mamelukes. Of the appearance of the latter we shall give some account.

' The next evening Mr. Hutchinson, &c. returned from the Mameluke camp, then six miles distant, and spoke in the highest terms of their reception, the order, appearance, and manners, which elevate the Mamelukes so much above the Turks.

' The next morning Osman Bey Tambourgi, attended by seven others, came to visit the general, and were highly pleased with his frankness and unequivocal declaration of his sentiments with regard to them. They had been by arrangement, for fear of giving offence, previously with the captain Pacha, who exerted himself to remove from their minds all apprehension and suspicion.

' Osman Bey was a handsome lusty man, of fifty years of age, ornamented with no distinguishing insignia, except a beautiful diamond hilted dagger, which belonged to his master, benefactor, and predecessor, Morad. Under his command were eleven Beys; but their united efficient force, not including their numerous followers, did not amount to above twelve hundred men. These were all richly dressed, well mounted, appointed, and armed. Individually, without doubt, they are superior to any cavalry in the world; but collectively, British dragoons must, from their physical superiority of strength, weight, and velocity, overpower in a charge more than an equal number of them.

' The Mamelukes generally are fine men, and seemed likely to continue so another generation, if judgment might be formed from the beautiful young Georgian boys in their possession. No air of sorrow appeared in any face, except in the countenances of some Frenchmen who had deserted or had been taken, and who were afraid of being exposed to the shame of returning amongst their comrades, after the abuse they had suffered, and therefore still continued in the service of their unnatural masters. Still the sentiment of love for their native country was not to be subdued, and they miserably pined in their slavery.

' The Beys were men of abilities. Mohammed Elfi, so called from Morad having paid 1100 dollars for him, which is an honourable distinction now attached to his name, and who has since fled into Upper Egypt, was particularly clever. Osman Bardici, afterwards severely wounded, was the most active, and Achmed Bey the most endowed with the knowledge of European politics, being an Italian by birth, and having been an hostage for the fealty of Morad Bey to the French.' P. 120.

The siege and capitulation of Cairo are events well known; but the narrative is clear and compact. The terms were undoubtedly favourable; but the circumstances of the British army were pressing. Our author's description of the pyramids and the sphinx is peculiarly accurate and interesting. The features are, he remarks, feminine, and of the Nubian cast. He supposes the figure to be hewn out of the rock on which it appears to recline. Instead of describing the city and fortifications of Cairo, we should prefer the account of the beautiful little island of Rhoda—an Oasis in the midst of a desert; but that it is scattered through many different parts of the work. Our author seems to condemn general Belliard's surrender, as inconsistent with his duty, when his resources are considered; and opposes, with some success, Reynier's defence of the measure. The reason of the defence was evidently that the preservation of Cairo was a favourite measure of Menou, and its careful supply ought to have been his chief object.

By the fall of Cairo, the brilliant events in the interior of Egypt were at an end; but colonel Loyd's passage from Suez across the desert to Cairo ought to be noticed as peculiarly interesting. It forms a good appendage to the narrative of Bruce, whose veracity, our author tells us, every circumstance tends to corroborate. Sir Robert informs us also, that Mr. Hammer in Cairo obtained a complete copy of the *Arabian Nights' Entertainments* in Arabic. We could wish to know whether it is really a genuine edition of the 'thousand and one;' for, under this title, there are many compilations of a very different nature, and of different merits. We doubt whether any one of this kind have hitherto reached England; and perhaps there may be no work which deserves the name of a 'genuine' edition. It is probably a title only; and every Arabian compiler includes in the volume the tales that he thinks most interesting, or that he can collect. We have little doubt, from the copies we have seen, that, in M. Galland's translation, 'the half is better than the whole.' The continuation is comparatively modern, though it may be found, in some copies, to bear the title of the 'thousand and one.'

General Baird's army passed the desert from Cosseir with less difficulty; and the passage from India to *Upper Egypt* may be found more easy still to the power who commands the ocean. In the present circumstances, water, when sought by digging, was soon discovered, and the supply was steady, even when not very copious.

At Deroute, the French passed the English, and the army of the latter saw above 10,000 men, with fifty pieces of artillery, and its complement of ammunition, defile before them. Three hundred and thirteen were left behind with 100,000 weight of gun-



powder; and the magazines were abundantly supplied to the period of the rising of the Nile, when the English army must have retreated. Nothing can account for the want of energy in the French army but its dissatisfied state, or the incompetence of the commander. The whole garrison, exclusive only of women and children, amounted to 14,252.

The siege of Alexandria is not equally interesting, chiefly as the catastrophe approaches, and is well known; yet the varied scenes fix the attention very strongly; and the author, even in those which are least important, keeps it alive by his manner, and by giving it a general connexion with the whole. Here, again, general Reynier's misrepresentations are noticed, and corrected, we believe with accuracy and justice. The description of the French works forms an important part of the detail; and we have again reason to regret the want of previous information. The history of the country, and the curious objects in the neighbourhood of Alexandria, offer little addition to what former travelers have told us. We must hasten to other objects, as our account has been so far extended.

The moral and physical state of Egypt follows. This province is in itself abundantly fertile, and supplies much more corn than her inhabitants can consume; but is still more valuable on account of its central situation; and, in proper hands, it might become the *dépôt* of India, Persia, Arabia, and Africa. Were England to possess Egypt without a rival, the value would be immense, though we are by no means blind to many important political considerations on the opposite side; but on these we cannot now enlarge, nor on the means of defending it. The balance, in a political view, leans to the possession of a strong fortress in that country, which, we think, might be maintained at an easy rate. Some of colonel Wilson's reflexions are highly judicious; but in others his eagerness carries him beyond the proper point.

‘Russia, under some ambitious monarch, might be induced again to extend her arms, and such an union of force would indeed be a formidable menace.

‘A nobleman most justly celebrated for the extent of his political knowledge and distinguished capacity, possessing also the best sources of information, relates an anecdote of his being shewn the copy of a plan given in by a Frenchman to the great Catherine of Russia, for the conquest of India, which idea appeared then so gigantic, that he did not much occupy himself with the details.

‘Some years afterwards Suwarrow entered Ispahan: “then,” says he, “I lamented the inattention, for I thought that I heard his cannon re-echoing in Hindostan, and the wonders of the French revolution have removed from my eyes the cloud of impracticability which I had thrown over the attempt.”

‘Few perhaps know that Paul the First drew from the archives

this important project, and attempted, in concert with France, the realization; when, fortunately for humanity and his country, death defeated his schemes of ambition and unnatural enmity.

'England, when she undertook the expedition against Egypt, disclaimed the intention of appropriating the conquest to her possessions; but happier would have been that country, and more advantageous might the arrangement have been made for Turkey, if Egypt had been constituted as an Indian colony.

'Egypt is necessary to England for security, not as an acquisition of wealth or aggrandizement. The theatre of her wars with France will ever hereafter be extended to those plains, and such an extension of the field of battle must be highly prejudicial to the interests of Great Britain.' P. 231.

Malta, in our author's opinion, should have been the next object; and this seems at present the subject of contention between England and France. The Turks wish to destroy the government of the Mamelukes; and they will probably succeed. An Indian army might supply their place, and Mahometan soldiers would be less obnoxious to the bigoted Turks; for a proportion of the sepoy's generally consists of Moormen. Colonel Wilson disclaims, on the side of the Porte, all intention of massacring the Beys; yet to carry them captives to Constantinople was not much more generous. They would probably soon have ended their lives by the bow-string.

Of the diseases of Egypt, our author speaks at some length; and denies that the plague is infectious. His position is well supported; but the proof of a negative is difficult and dangerous. We admit that it is an epidemic disorder, and by no means so actively infectious as has been supposed. The epidemic or infectious nature of the ophthalmia, our author seems not to be aware of; but on the diseases of Egypt we are led to expect some very valuable information from the different practitioners employed in that country. We have high expectations also from the promised work of Assalini; and we trust moreover that we may receive the remarks of the able and humane Desgenettes. The appendix contains different official returns, which add greatly to the value of the work.

On the whole, we have been much pleased with this volume, which the spirit, the good sense, and extensive information of the author have rendered highly interesting. The language is not, however, always correct; and the terms of art, chiefly French, are somewhat too freely employed. We have had occasion, also, to reprehend our writer, who, we find, is a young man, for assuming too often the character of a judge on the conduct of the ablest generals. His faults, however, are neither numerous nor glaring: his merits are peculiar and conspicuous.

which I had thrown over the shoulder of the first man I met from the archives. Few perhaps know that Paul Jones drew from the archives.



ART. IV.—*Annals of the French Revolution ; or, a Chronological Account of its principal Events ; with a Variety of Anecdotes and Characters hitherto unpublished.* By A. F. Bertrand De Moleville, Minister of State. Translated by R. C. Dallas, Esq. From the Original Manuscript of the Author, which has never been published. Part second, and last. 5 Vols. 8vo. 21. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

THE former part of these Annals, in four volumes octavo, was presented to the public about two years ago; and an account of it occurs in our 28th volume, p. 185; and volume 29, p. 49. Why M. Bertrand, after having been at the trouble of compiling his Annals in his native tongue, should prefer publishing them first of all in English, we know not; unless it be that he judges the principles they profess better calculated for the meridian of London than of Paris, where, nevertheless, we think, in the present state of its politics, he might have hazarded them without any great danger from the consular government. With respect to the translation itself, as we have never seen the French manuscript, we can give no critical opinion as to its fidelity. The style, however, is in the main correct and chaste; and we have no reason to dispute its literal adherence to the original. We were not a little surprised, on opening the first volume of the present part of this translation (the fifth of the entire work), at beholding a *French* map of the campaign of the confederate armies under the duke of Brunswick, offering to the *English* reader, not only the *French* names alone of the different mountains, valleys, rivers, and districts, which were successively occupied, but accompanied with a long list of explanations confined for his great benefit to the *French* tongue also: but we were still more surprised when, on taking up the last volume, which, with a sort of Hibernian perverseness of language, is still called a *translation* in its title-page, we found that the whole of it, consisting of notes in the form of an appendix, was also in French, without a syllable of version of any kind, except a short supplement appended to this appendix, containing a few animadversions on M. Mallet Du Pan's review of the former part of the Annals, and a still shorter correspondence between the author and Mr. Fox, which has been already communicated to the public through the medium of the newspapers. This is a proof of indolence in a translator, which we cannot observe without reprehension.

We now pass on to a review of the work itself, which in this second part extends from the period of M. Bertrand's accepting the office of minister of the marine on the resignation of M. Thevenard, October 1791, to the trial and execution of

the unfortunate monarch in January 1793. In much therefore of this—

‘Præcipuus fragor, et longe pars maxima luctûs’—

our annalist was himself a spectator, and, in no small portion of what he beheld, a party deeply concerned. The work, in consequence, comes recommended to us with incontrovertible authenticity; and, abating the prejudices which it obviously evinces from the author's known attachment to the cause of his royal master, may be profitably perused at present, and will constitute a valuable document for the future historian.

The character of Lewis XVI. has never to this hour been sufficiently developed; and it requires more impartiality, and perhaps more study, than has hitherto been evinced on any side, to appreciate it aright. No man exhibited more moral virtue, or was more entitled to the reverence and affection of his country than himself for many years after his union with Maria-Antonietta; nor was ever prince more fortunate in having the virtuous desires of his heart seconded by the princess whom he had espoused. The court of Versailles was at this time the vilest sink of corruption on the face of the earth; and Lewis XV., his grandfather, the filthiest debauchée that ever disgraced a throne, or dishonoured the hoary hairs of age. Young as was the prince at this period, he was too wise to intermingle in the orgies of illicit pleasure to which he was perpetually enticed: and whatever may have been his want of fortitude in subsequent life, he was here bold enough to resist every overture. In deep retirement from the court, he passed his noiseless hours in the society of a chosen and virtuous few; and, in conjunction with his lovely consort, spent the greater part of his time in relieving the wants and promoting the happiness of the villages immediately around them. In the midst of this benevolent occupation, he was called abruptly to the throne by the death of his grandfather: and, whatever errors or deficiencies he afterwards exhibited, they were rather the vices of his court than of himself. Had the court of Versailles been virtuous, he would have continued so, and promoted the happiness of his country as pre-eminently as he had done that of the contracted boundary of his earlier years. Nor would he then have evinced any inactivity or want of resolution to carry into effect his schemes of patriotic benevolence. But the court of Versailles was a new world to him: and though he had been able to resist its temptations at a distance, they soon became too powerful for himself and his royal consort when they were placed within its immediate contagion. Maria-Antonietta fell first from her prior innocence, and fell deepest. The fall of Lewis was less abrupt, and less complete. The native goodness of his heart, and



strength of his intellect, beamed occasionally through the gloom that surrounded him; and though he soon lost all energy to act, he had still energy enough, at times, to resolve upon acting. Yet let us not throw the entire blame of irresolution upon the unfortunate monarch. He was too often surrounded by a ministry as unsteady to their own determinations as himself. Of this we shall select one example from the Annals before us. In November 1791, the legislative assembly had passed several decrees of extreme rigour against the princes who had emigrated. This, however, had not sufficiently satiated the vengeance of the Jacobins, by whom the greater part of the assembly were influenced or intimidated.

‘ Their rancour required another violent decree against the emigrants, and the assembly had satisfied them in this point, by issuing one, which not only exceeded its powers, but was even contrary to the spirit of the constitution. This was so evident, that after a minute discussion, the king’s ministers unanimously advised him to refuse his sanction. But as the king had never yet employed this prerogative, the ministers were of opinion, that to prevent its having a bad effect upon the public, and likewise that it might strike the assembly with some degree of awe, it would be prudent to give to this measure an unusual degree of solemnity, by ordering the refusal of the sanction to be carried to the assembly in the form of a royal message, by all the ministers, whose presence would mark their unanimous agreement; and the keeper of the seals, who should deliver the message, might insert in his speech some sentences, enforcing the wisdom and justice of his majesty’s motives for refusing his sanction to the decree.

‘ The 12th of November being the day fixed for this message of the king, all the ministers met at the house of the keeper of the seals, that they might go together to the assembly. Before we set out, he called for and drank two large glasses of water. I was afraid he was ill; but on mentioning my apprehensions, he answered, “No; it is only a precaution I take every time I go to the assembly. The blood boils in my veins when I hear these fellows speak; and if I did not take something to cool myself, I should get into a passion, and be apt to tell them very disagreeable truths.”

“I hope,” said I, “all this water will only moderate the passion, without weakening those truths you have to tell them, be they agreeable or not.”

‘ The appearance of all the ministers, and a message from the king, (the first the assembly had ever received, and of which the object was entirely unknown,) excited a general and profound silence in the hall and in the tribunes. That of the galleries could only be imputed to curiosity; but in the silence of the assembly there was at least as much uneasiness as surprise. The keeper of the seals began by laying upon the table the different decrees which the king had sanctioned, among which there were two or three which the assembly had expected, for some time, with a good deal of impatience. He terminated this first part of his mission by informing the assembly, that with respect to the decree against the emigrants,

the king would examine it ; which signified, in constitutional language, that the decree was refused. He then drew from his pocket the paper which contained his discourse. Unluckily the water operated at that moment with so much violence, that his colour forsook him, his hands trembled, and his voice failed him so much, that he could hardly read. And what was still more unlucky, the first phrase, instead of relating to the subject of the message, mentioned the refusal of the sanction. He was not permitted to proceed farther. A general murmur arose. All the deputies spoke at once. Every one insisted on being heard, but no silence was to be obtained. They all vociferously exclaimed, " Mr. president, we cannot listen to this message."—" This message is unconstitutional."—" It is the motives for refusing the sanction."—" Call the minister of justice to order."—" Mr. president, the constitution—"—" Mr. president, allow me to make a motion of order." This tumult lasted seven or eight minutes. The ministers waited the issue of it standing. At length the president put it to the vote ; Whether they should hear the message, or pass to the order of the day. The keeper of the seals, entirely disconcerted by this tumultuous scene, sat down with the other ministers, giving up all hopes of being heard.

' To prevent such an unexpected and unfortunate termination of the business, I asked leave to speak. They refused to hear me, and the motion for the order of the day was carried ; after which the president told me that I was now allowed to speak. I rose and said, that I now had nothing to say ; but had I been heard before the last motion was carried, I should have informed the assembly, that the object of the king's message was to acquaint them with the new measures adopted by his majesty for stopping the emigration. This renewed the tumult ; one party insisting on hearing the message, and recalling the decree just pronounced ; the other exclaiming for its execution. But the ministers remaining passive, and the keeper of the seals, who ought to have represented to the assembly, that they had no right, by the constitution, to refuse to hear any message from the king, being silent, the order of the day was adopted.' Vol. v. p. 85.

Such a general spirit of pusillanimity in the executive power would ruin the best cause of the best king in the world : and we may be the more surprised at it in this country, because we have not of late years been accustomed to witness any thing of the kind. As some apology, however, for M. Bertrand and his colleagues, it should be remarked that our own ministers have not been celebrated as *water-drinkers*.

Every body now knows that a secret understanding had subsisted between the revolutionary government of France and Tippoo Saib, long before the fall of the latter. The proposal for such a connexion was first made, as it appears from the present Annals, during the existence and authority of Lewis XVI. in December 1791.

' At this period a secret message was sent to the king by Tippoo Saib, who demanded of his majesty 6000 French troops, offering to



pay their transportation, cloathing, and maintenance. He was convinced, that with this assistance he could destroy the English army and settlements in India, and ensure the possession to France. That nothing might transpire of this affair, Tippoo had not mentioned it in his council, and had secretly negociated the business with M. de Fresne, governor of Pondicherry, through the means of M. Leger, administrator of the civil department in India, who understood the Persian language, and who wrote the dispatches dictated by Tippoo relative to this embassy. M. Leger himself came from India to France with this message; and in order to conceal the real object of his voyage, some time before he set out he had declared that his private affairs would oblige him to return immediately to France.

‘As M. Leger was directed to the minister of marine, I informed the king of Tippoo Saib’s proposal: but notwithstanding its advantages, and although the insurrection of the negroes of St. Domingo rendered it necessary to send a considerable force there, under the pretence of which it would have been easy to send to the East Indies the 6000 men demanded by Tippoo, without raising the suspicion of the English government: the natural probity of the king’s mind would not permit him to adopt this measure. “This resembles,” said he, “the affair of America, which I never think of without regret. My youth was taken advantage of at that time, and we suffer for it now. The lesson is too severe to be forgotten.” Vol. v. p. 192.

M. de Moleville proves himself in this passage but an indifferent logician. The reply of Lewis evinces most evidently, that, notwithstanding the great need he had at this moment of the interference of the court of London in his favour—and much as he had reason to depend upon it—he was not restrained from confederating with Tippoo Saib, by any *natural probity of mind*, but from motives of *self-interest* alone. He had learnt wisdom by experience—he was become a sounder politician than during the American war. Under the ill effects of the republican principles countenanced by himself at that time, he was now severely labouring; and he well knew that it was not the surest way to serve the monarchical cause of France, to embark an army for Asia, as he had formerly done for America, to fight against English despotism, and in favour of the rights of man. Could any real benefit, in his judgement, have accrued from such a step, there is no doubt, from this very reply, that he would have been as eager to have embraced it as the directory were afterwards: and there is as little doubt that M. Bertrand himself, who, even at this moment, perceived its *advantages*, and the *ease* with which it might have been accomplished, *without raising the suspicion of the English government*, would, as a minister in the full confidence of his majesty, have strenuously recommended it. It had, in reality, been long a favorite measure with the French government; and, had Lewis XVI. survived the revolution, our Indian possessions would have been as

much endangered before now, as by the too precipitate expedition of Bonaparte to Egypt.

There are few occasions upon which we can find reason to extol the wisdom or the magnanimity of the king's ministers. Involved as the capital, and indeed the whole country, was in anarchy and confusion, it could not but be difficult to select men of talents proportionate to the evils they had to encounter; and the difficulty was at least quadrupled from the immense emigration of royalists which had now taken place in every direction, from the princes of the blood to the lowest order of the noblesse. It was, in effect, this uniform and unpardonable cowardice that ruined the very cause to which they were attached: the old order of society in France has rather been voluntarily abandoned than forcibly conquered; and the king fell a victim to his enemies less from their number than from the dishonourable desertion of his friends. In all the ministers, in all the constituted authorities, there appears to have been far less fortitude and presence of mind than in the monarch himself. A very small portion of real courage and address would have ruled the mob on most occasions; and, much as we may execrate the disorders of the 20th of June, it would be impossible perhaps to witness such a total abstraction of all civil and military authority in this country without infinitely greater mischief. The king had at this time, with a pertinacity that does him credit, refused to sanction the decree relative to the transportation of the non-juring priests, and that for the formation of a camp near Paris. The mobility of the capital were highly incensed upon the occasion, and Petion, as well as the respective municipal officers, in a moment of unparalleled delirium, suffered them to advance armed, first of all to the national assembly, whom they completely intimidated by their presence and remonstrances, and afterwards to the palace.

‘ Every thing had remained quiet in the palace till half after three o'clock, when the petitioners were seen coming out of the hall, and joining the immense populace who were waiting for them without: they filled the garden of the Thuilleries, and the square of the Carouzel, moving tumultuously towards the doors and iron gates of the palace, which the king had ordered to be locked: these they shook with violence, calling out loudly to have them opened. The croud increasing every moment, and their vociferations becoming more and more menacing, a municipal officer endeavoured to reason with the leaders of the mob that were besieging the gates of the royal court. He represented to them that the guard could not, without violating the constitution, and making them responsible, suffer more than twenty petitioners at once to enter the palace; and that if they would commission twenty of them to go and present their petition to the king, the doors should be opened to them. At this moment, when this proposal was about to be accepted, another



municipal officer (Panis) who was within the palace, came down to the iron gate which led to the terrace in the garden, and ordered the guard to open it. Scarcely was this order obeyed, when the multitude that crowded the garden rushed impetuously into the palace, and made it echo with the shouts of *Vive la nation ! vivent les sansculottes !* These shouts being heard in the square of the Carouzel, were there repeated by thousands of brigands, who seeing their companions masters of the palace, would no longer listen to any remonstrance, forced the gate of the royal court, that they might join them ; and by one of those prodigies of strength, which the most violent fits of delirium can alone render possible, they carried a cannon with their own hands into the very hall of the guards.

‘ The king was then with his family, whom he was comforting and encouraging by his own serenity. A noise was heard, which proceeded from an attack upon the doors of the inside of the palace, which his majesty had ordered to be shut : they were beaten in by hatchets and iron crows. The repeated blows given by these being more distinctly heard, the king went by himself into the council chamber, where he found the faithful mareschal de Mouchy, the worthy d’Hervilly, formerly commander of the horse guards, the commander of the battalion of the Fauxbourg St. Marceau, (Aclogne), and three grenadiers of the national guard. At that moment the pannels of the door that led to the next room were broken and fell in. His majesty immediately ordered it to be opened. The first that entered were men of horrid aspects, armed with pikes. Aclogne advanced boldly towards them, and made them lower their arms. Citizens, said he, here is your king, what do you want with him ? Respect this good king. This injunction was repeated by the three grenadiers of the national guard. Two or three of these brigands, half intoxicated, cried mechanically, *Vive le roi !* while others as stupidly roared out, *Petition and address !* The king, whose only care was to keep these furies at a distance from the apartment in which he had left the royal family, hoped to prevent their penetrating any farther into the palace, and to make them go back into the *ail de bœuf*, by going thither himself, under the pretence of showing himself to the people in a larger room, and receiving the petition he was told of. This perilous resolution was formed, announced, and executed at the same instant. His majesty, accompanied by the six persons he had found in the council chamber, made his way with extreme difficulty through the croud that filled the levee-room to the *ail de bœuf*, where he stopped at the middle window, and seated himself on a chair, which being placed on the step within the recess, raised him above the multitude. Mareschal de Mouchy, M. d’Hervilly, and the three grenadiers whom I mentioned before, were close to him, while the intrepid Aclogne was as active as possible in gathering about the window all the men of the national guard then at the palace, whom he could depend upon.

‘ Madame Elizabeth, who was ever swayed by her affectionate solicitude for her august brother, not having had permission to follow him into the council chamber, had placed herself behind the door, which was half open, in order that she might have him always in sight. As soon as she saw him, surrounded with brigands,

going into the next apartment, she darted forward, and seeing one of the late captains of the constitutional guard, dragged him into the croud amidst the pikes, and reaching the *ail de bœuf* almost as soon as the king, took a place to the left of his majesty, in the recess of another window. The captain of the constitutional guard (M. de Marsilly) remained with her, and some other persons devoted to the royal family joined her. Several brigands, who had never seen this princess, taking her for the queen, poured forth the most horrible execrations against her. The persons about her were going to undeceive them, but madame Elizabeth would not allow it. "Do not mention my name," said she; "let them think that I am the queen." It was not enough for this magnanimous princess to share the dangers of her beloved brother, she wished to draw upon herself too those that threatened her sister-in-law.

'It would be as useless as disgusting to give a circumstantial account of the gross language, threatening gestures, insults, and outrages of every kind, which the king experienced on this horrid day. It will be easy to conceive the excesses of this horrible collection of the most ferocious brigands, whose patriotism, or rather revolutionary delirium, was raised to a pitch of fury by the fumes of the strong liquors with which they had been lavishly supplied. Some demanded, or commanded by their clamours, the re-appointment of the patriotic ministers, and the sanction of the two decrees. To these the king said; this is not the moment for making such a demand, nor the way in which it should be done. Others, advancing with their pikes raised towards the window in which his majesty was, ordered him, by their vociferations, mixed with oaths, to cry *Vive la nation*. "Well," replied the king, "*Vive la nation*; it certainly has no better friend than myself." One of the monsters, foaming with fury and wine, pushing through the croud, brutally presented a red cap to his majesty, and insisting that he should put it on, placed it himself on the king's head, for which he was loudly applauded by the rest of the villains, who endeavoured to outdo one another in new outrages, exceeding those they had seen committed. This execrable emulation became the patriotism of the moment, and more than once put the life of Louis XVI. in danger, without producing in him any visible alteration of that tranquil and undaunted look which disconcerted the most determined assassins. It was at this time, that a soldier of the national guard, who happened to be near him, saying to him that he must have felt great fear, the king made that sublime reply, which was heard by several persons, and soon repeated throughout the palace: "The man who means well feels no fear. Put your hand here," added his majesty, taking the soldier's hand and putting it upon his heart, "is this the beating of a heart agitated with fear?"

'The queen, accustomed never to compound her dignity for her personal safety, hearing herself named in the clamours of the brigands, was not disposed to wait their breaking into the small apartment in which the king had left her. She thought it more becoming, and perhaps less dangerous also, boldly to brave the danger, than to shun it. She went therefore with her children, and some ladies of the court, into the council chamber just as the croud was entering



it; there she heard, without emotion, the imprecations directed to her, and to the last preserved that commanding and majestic countenance that repels insult and forces respect. The moment most painful to her, was that in which she saw the red cap placed on her son's head. She nevertheless concealed her indignation, and seemed to have paid no attention to that insult. Some moments after, Santerre, one of the chiefs of this insurrection, making his way through the croud, went up to the queen, and seeing the Dauphin's face covered with perspiration, said, This child is smothered; why is this cap left upon his head? He then took it off himself, and put it on the table on which the Dauphin was sitting, saying to the queen in a low voice, yet loud enough to be heard by the persons about her majesty, You have very awkward friends, madam; I know those who would serve you much better. The queen looked down, and made him no answer.' Vol. vi. p. 334.

Petion at length appeared in the *sal de bauf*. The croud opened to let him pass. When he reached the middle of the hall, he got upon a chair, harangued the people, and impudently praised the moderation with which they had exercised their right of petitioning. "You will," said he, "finish this day as you began it. Hitherto your conduct has been conformable to the law; in the name of the law I call upon you to follow me, and to retire peaceably to your homes." This army of brigands, as obedient to the voice of Petion as the best disciplined army could have been to the orders of their general, began immediately to move, and filed off through the door opposite to that by which they had entered; that is to say, passing through all the king's apartments. The deputation then requested the king to return to his room, whither they accompanied him. They then went and gave an account to the assembly of the state of tranquillity in which they had left the palace, and the manner in which they had discharged their mission. The assembly expressed their satisfaction to them by loud plaudits. One sentence only in the speech to the king excited violent murmurs; that was, where the speaker said, in the name of his colleagues, that they were come to share all his dangers. It is certain that, at the time this was said to the king, it was a mere gasconade, for there was no more danger to be apprehended for his majesty, nor consequently to be shared with him. But this was not the cause of the murmurs excited by that expression; the blame cast upon the speaker was, for giving it to be understood that the king had been in any danger, and for thus drawing upon the assembly the censure of not having prevented it, as they should have done, by taking into consideration the representations which the directory of the department had made to them on this occasion.

The disapprobation expressed by these murmurs were [*was*] justified, or at least explained by the false account which Petion came and gave to the assembly of what had passed at Paris. "Every thing," said he, "indicated the greatest calm. Persons, property, all were respected. What has happened? The people were passing through the Thuilleries, when several citizens proceeded to the king's apartments.

*Those citizens, cu'pable no doubt, insulted nobody. They proved that they had no design of committing excesses, for they were so numerous, that the public force could not have prevented whatever they might have chosen to commit. I repaired to the palace in order to clear the apartments. The king has had no reason whatever to complain of the citizens, who filed off before him. He said so himself to the deputies and magistrates. Calm is now every where perfectly restored, and I hope will continue."*

' I will not pause to refute the gross and awkward falsehoods put together in this recital. I think it enough to have distinguished them by using Italic characters; but the important confession which escaped Petion is not unworthy of remark. He acknowledged, in the most positive terms, the brigands, whom he was pleased to honour with the name of citizens, were so numerous, that the public force could not have prevented whatever excesses they might have chosen to commit. It might at least have prevented their collecting before they were formed, had the municipality given orders for it, conformably to the law, and to the resolution of the department: but Petion was not satisfied with taking no measure whatever to prevent these brigands from arming and assembling, he called upon the national guard to arm and join them, not to suppress, but to follow them! It no doubt required a great stock of stupidity or villany to dare to encounter such a weight of responsibility.

' The assembly loudly applauded Petion's speech, and broke up the sitting at ten o'clock. Thus terminated this horrid day, on which the king owed his life to his presence of mind and cool unshaken courage, the queen hers to the commanding dignity of her countenance, and madame Elizabeth hers to the respect produced by the heroic and affectionate devotion she manifested for their majesties.

' The populace had scarcely left the palace, when even those of their own class, who had not taken an active part in the insurrection, broke out into invectives against those who had excited it, and admired the firm and moderate conduct of the king and royal family. Alas! that the execrable crimes of which this august family became victims, should be such as to make us almost regret that their sad destiny had not been consummated this day! The regicide would have been the crime only of a few villains, whom France would have abhorred, whom a court would have punished. It would have spared the royal family the indignities, humiliations, and outrages without number they were further doomed to suffer. The monarchy might have been saved; at least, if it had perished, the national honour would not have received such a stain; whereas, seven months after, it was in the name of the nation, and by its representatives themselves, that the blood of Louis XVI. was shed, and the anniversary of that horrible crime placed in the number of national festivals.' Vol. vi. p. 347.

*(To be continued.)*



ART. V.—*Eight Discourses on the Connection between the Old and New Testament considered as two Parts of the same Divine Revelation; and demonstrative of the great Doctrine of Atonement: accompanied with a preliminary Discourse respectfully addressed to the younger Clergy: containing some Remarks on the late Professor Campbell's Ecclesiastical History. By the Rev. Charles Daubeny, L.L.B. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Hatchard. 1802.*

THE subject of these discourses is the most important in the whole circle of theological truths, and ought to occupy the utmost attention on the part of every true Christian. They profess to explain the great points of Christ's character, in the relation in which he stands to us as having been made to mankind—wisdom and righteousness, sanctification and redemption; and he is shown to be the same yesterday, to-day, and for ever. The subject is so interesting, and so well calculated to fill the mind with the highest conceptions of the government of God, and gratitude for the great love manifested to us in our redemption, that it might well have been curtailed of those extraneous remarks which occupy nearly a third part of the volume, concerning infidels, heretics, and the nature of church government—remarks which arise from a mere view of present affairs; and its beauty is more clearly seen when confined entirely to those proofs which require no other knowledge than that which is gained by a due attention to, and meditation upon, the holy Scriptures.

The preliminary discourse is occasioned by professor Campbell's Lectures on Ecclesiastical History. The professor, being a member of the church established by law in the northern part of this island, was naturally inclined to give that establishment all the supposed consequence which the present writer—who is a member of the church established by law in the southern part of the island—ascribes to his own church alone, or to those which follow a similar form of government. We read in the New Testament of bishops, presbyters, and deacons; but it by no means results, that, because these titles are still retained in this island, the characters they are intended to designate resemble those under the same name in the apostolic age, and the first fifty years after the death of John, the last of the apostles. To determine this question, we must consider the duties of each character, as well as the persons by whom, and the authority by which, they were appointed. In the first ages they were chosen by the people, received only a gratuity from the people, were not distinguished by their dress or behaviour from the rest of the people, and were merely known by their office in their religious association. Such a form of government,

nevertheless, however suited to the church of those days, is not necessarily the standard for subsequent ages; and the churches established by law in this island may justify themselves for their departure from the ancient system, in consequence of the difference of circumstances in which they are respectively placed. Neither of them exactly coincides with the supposed apostolic standard; and their little differences from each other are not a matter of very great importance.

Our author is rather too severe upon the professor, and occasionally imputes motives to him which we cannot for a moment conceive to have influenced his conduct. He is accused of keeping back an important quotation of St. Jerome, 'who, in his epistle to Evagrius, wrote thus:—

"That we may know that the apostolic traditions and institutions are taken from the Old Testament, what Aaron and his sons, and the Levites were in the temple, that the bishops, the presbyters, and the deacons claim to be in the church." P. 64.

Now the opinion of St. Jerome is no authority in this question; for, not to mention the length of time between the period of his writings and that of the apostolic age, he asserts only an opinion of which every Christian is as competent to judge as himself, from the documents before him. Aaron and the Levites were a peculiar order of men ordained by God for peculiar purposes, of which the most important was that of typifying our Saviour in the person of the high priest, who alone entered the most holy place; and no person in the Christian church, but our Saviour himself, can be compared with the high priest of the preceding covenant. The Old Testament informs us what were the duties and offices of the Levitical priesthood; the New Testament explains the nature of the offices ascribed to bishops, presbyters, and deacons. We see no resemblance between the two; and, if the parallel could be justly drawn, the papists would be the only persons to derive an advantage from it, since they best might assert, that, as there could be only one high priest under the Levitical law, so in the Christian church one high priest alone is to be tolerated; for, assuredly, no ecclesiastic has such powerful pretensions to such a title as the pope.

But the professor is made to appear doubly guilty, and Christianity itself is supposed to be involved in this question of episcopacy.

'The independent notions contained in Dr. Campbell's late publication, are those which have already been productive of infinite mischief to the cause of Christianity; and if not timely counteracted, bid fair to terminate in its total destruction. And if Dr. Campbell, with all his acknowledged abilities, had not been a blind worshipper



of his favorite idol, presbyterianism, he could not have acquiesced in a system of church government, "to which all the sources of evidence hitherto known in theological controversy, reason, Scripture, and tradition, (if fairly produced) are equally repugnant." p. 85.

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'The arguments which have been since employed in support of presbyterianism, derive their origin chiefly from that spurious spirit of puritanism, which, having first manifested itself in a factious, and for the most part senseless opposition to the order and discipline of the church of England, at length terminated in that fatal separation from it, which separatists feel themselves pledged at all events to justify.

'Such discrimination is necessary to distinguish the glorious cause of our reformation, from that degenerate one, which presbyterianism is at all times vainly attempting to associate with it.' p. 88.

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'The chief marks by which the publication of the professor appears to be distinguished from that of most other advocates in the same cause, are that unqualified boldness of assertion and peremptoriness of decision, which certainly prove, not so much the truth of a cause, as the confidence of its supporter.' p. 90.

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'His publication appears to me, to contain one of the most hostile, most illiberal, and most unsupported attacks upon the episcopacy of the church of Christ, that ever has been made. Those who would enter more at large into his subject, from the complete satisfaction to be found, in one or other of the publications mentioned in the margin, on every prominent feature of the professor's argument; will be surprised that a man of the professor's acknowledged abilities, should commit himself in the maintenance of points, which have been repeatedly and decidedly disproved.' p. 128.

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'When it is considered moreover, that the professor prepared these lectures for the press; we think that what Dr. Johnson said of lord Chesterfield, he might probably, had he been living, have applied on this occasion to Dr. Campbell: by saying, that he had charged his blunderbuss against the church of England, and left it to his executors to be fired off; because he himself was afraid of the recoil: for the professor must have known, it is presumed, that there were not wanting divines in the church of England, (and I add with pleasure, in the episcopal church of Scotland also,) qualified to remove that veil of fallacy, with which, through the concurrent assistance of unfair representation, partial quotation, inconclusive reasoning, and confident assertion, he has contrived to disguise, and thereby disgrace the cause he undertook to maintain.' p. 138.

But why should we be at the trouble of selecting further  
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proofs of the temper of mind in which our author wrote his discourse, which will meet with a very different reception on this and the other side of the Tweed; when he has saved us the labour by showing, in few words, how far the folly of prejudice will carry a man. *Malo*, says he, *cum episcopo errare quam cum presbyteris recte sentire*;—in plain English, I had rather be wrong with a bishop, than right with the presbyterians.

We have dwelt too long upon this subject, which, if it deserve so prolix a discussion among scholars, should at all times be treated in a very different manner from our author's. Since both churches are established by law in the same kingdom, there is a degree of decency due from the members of each to the other; and our author, when recollecting that all his assertions on the succession of bishops from the times of the apostles rest upon very disputable authority, might have treated the sister church with greater candour. We have no doubt, that, if Dr. Campbell were alive, he would silence him at once by a simple question—Name to me the bishop who derives his authority from the apostles, and show me the list of his predecessors?

We enter now upon the discourses which form the principal part of the volume; and, on the importance of their subject, we agree entirely with the author.

'Were I called upon' (he says) 'to point out the peculiar and distinguishing doctrine of the Gospel; it should not be that of the resurrection from the dead; (though this must be allowed to be an essential one;) but that most important and interesting of all other doctrines, which proclaims salvation to fallen man through the blood of a crucified Saviour.' P. 186.

The reason for considering this as the most important doctrine in our faith, cannot be assigned on better grounds than by our author.

'For what is the doctrine of most importance to man in his religious concerns? Doubtless, it is that of his redemption from sin and sorrow, from death and hell; to righteousness and joy, to immortality and glory. The resurrection from the dead would be but an uncomfortable doctrine, unaccompanied with an assurance relative to our condition in another state. It is not sufficient to know, that this life ended, we shall live again; unless we also know that our Redeemer liveth; and that where he is, there we shall be also; provided we believe in him as we ought. It is not enough to know, that we shall, in the end, triumph over death and the grave; unless we also know, that the sting of death, which is sin, is taken away; and that those who die in Jesus, shall rise in him to glory. It is this comfortable consideration which makes us join in gratitude with the apostle, in giving thanks to God, which giveth us the victory over



the grand enemy of our salvation, through our Lord Jesus Christ.'  
P. 187.

In fact, the very name of Saviour, by which Christ is known to all his disciples, characterises this important doctrine. In this consists the essence of the Christian religion: it is a truth which was obscurely known to the ancient, and is altogether rejected by modern, Jews. The developement of this truth is the great object of both the Old and the New Testaments; and in showing its various bearings under the titles of Christ, the same yesterday, to-day, and for ever—Christ our wisdom, our righteousness, our sanctification and redemption—if our author introduce many unnecessary, several trifling, and some improper circumstances, we agree with him entirely in the main object he had in view, to impress upon every Christian mind the great doctrine of our salvation, and the glorious means by which it was accomplished.

The first three discourses are appropriated to the character of the Gospel of Christ, as being the same yesterday, to-day, and for ever; and it is well shown that it commenced with the earliest tidings of deliverance to the first mother of mankind; and was declared by types and prophecies to the moment that the Saviour entered upon his gracious office. There cannot be a doubt that what God has revealed is an eternal truth; and this sameness, under the dispensations of the Old and New Testaments, affords numberless instances of discovering the beauties of the Scriptures. In the prosecution of his subject, however, our author seems to be losing sight of the great point in his text.

'The passage in our text, for instance, points out the eternal existence of Jesus Christ the Son of God, and Saviour of the world; that divine person, "who was and is, and is to come," as an essential branch of the apostolic faith; and consequently, a fundamental doctrine of the Christian church. Now, though the human mind is unable to measure eternity, or "to search the deep things of God;" nevertheless, what, on the ground of divine revelation, was the faith of the church seventeen hundred years ago, must continue to be so still; for the fashion of the world can have nothing to do with a business of this kind. Religion, as deriving its establishment from that Being "with whom is neither variableness nor shadow of turning," is not a thing to be new-modelled every day, in compliance with the varying fancies and never-ending speculations of capricious man; but must be expected to wear the character of its divine author, that of being "the same yesterday, to-day, and for ever."  
P. 170.

Now the apostle in the text was not considering the nature of Christ's character farther than it stands in relation to us in

three durations of time, yesterday, to-day, and for ever. The first duration being a period far short of eternity, and referring only to that epoch in which it was obscurely prophesied to our common mother that a Gospel dispensation should begin, we are the more surprised at our author's mistaking so palpably the apostle's meaning, since in another discourse he has explained it in this very manner himself, and in the only manner indeed which the words will admit.

'If the service of the church from Adam to Christ was the same, the doctrine of it cannot be different; for the service comprehended the doctrine, and was designed to preserve it. Hence it is, that with reference to his religion it may be said, "Jesus Christ is the same yesterday, to-day, and for ever." P. 216.

To explain the sameness of character in the two religions, our author extends his comparison between the services of the Christian and the Jewish to a nicety which cannot be admitted. The great distinction between the two consists in the existence and necessity of sacrifices. The Jew had a temple, an altar, a daily oblation: the Christians have neither altar nor sacrifice. When it is said, 'We Christians in the sacrifice of our altar commemorate' what was prefigured by the Jewish sacrifices, our author adopts the language of popery, and appears to be thinking of the sacrifice of the mass. When the protestants placed a table in their churches (and in the church of England it is peculiarly called a table), the distinction between themselves and the papists was drawn in the best possible manner.

We need not dwell much upon some other peculiarities in these discourses. It is sufficient to observe, that the writer refers continually to Mr. Jones, and is a favourer of the Hutchinsonian system. Hence we find him endeavouring to introduce the Holy Trinity under the quaint title of 'the three great ones'—a title which is not to be found in Scripture; and is peculiarly improper in our own language, as the term *great ones* is rather an appellation for those who possess influence under the sovereign, than for the sovereign himself. We have a similar conceit on the redemption, which is said to constitute 'the thorough bass of the general harmony of the Bible.' The natural vehemence of temper which is conspicuous throughout these discourses, is, as might be expected, inflamed at the situation of the present times; and all the records of history are forgotten, in contemplation of the events to which we have been witnesses.

'If the systematic establishment of the Christian faith on the firm basis of divine revelation, was ever necessary, it is peculiarly so in the present day; which bears witness to the most open and desperate



attack that has ever been made on the Christian religion, since the time that it was first published to the world. And never surely were the clergy more imperiously called upon to bear their most decided testimony to the doctrines of the cross, than under the present awful circumstances of the world. Having marked the progress and direful consequences of that overflowing ungodliness now so much to be dreaded; in manners corrupted, morals depraved, dissipation predominant, above all, in religion publicly discarded, and infidelity as publicly avowed; we must be convinced, if we are to be convinced of any thing, that Christianity has the promise of the life that now is, not less than of that which is to come: and consequently that whoever endeavours to banish it from society, whilst he is a rebel to his God, proves himself, at the same time, to be the worst enemy to man.' P. 456.

Our author is yet to be informed, that there was a time when Christians were brought to the stake for their religion; when their houses were searched for religious books, and the circulation of them was prohibited; when their religious meetings were held by stealth, and to be termed a Christian was a mark of disgrace. How can the present state of Christianity, especially in this country, be compared with that in which it was the object of persecution—in this country, where its ministers are honoured and provided for in the most ample manner; where all access to dignities and emolument is prohibited to those who are not of the Christian faith; and where the circulation of books of infidelity is punished with imprisonment. These alarms on the subject of religion have a tendency to create more mischief than good: a true Christian will always be upon his guard without betraying symptoms of fear; and, in the declining state of infidelity, there is no necessity for a violence, which, were it even prosperous, it would be improper to manifest.

In a subject of less importance, a little ardour is more venial; and we can excuse some warmth in defence of the school at which the author was educated. The rash and ill-founded attack, made by Dr. Rennel on our public seminaries, is well known, from the chastisement he has received on this subject from the late master of Westminster-school, who is now dean of Westminster-cathedral. Our author was educated at Winchester: he feels for the injustice done to the celebrated school of that city; and expresses some degree of dissatisfaction that Dr. Rennel, who has exempted Westminster-school from his general denunciation, did not extend his exemption to another, with which, from his long residence in Winchester, he was so well acquainted.

'The charge in question' (it is justly observed) 'indiscriminate and unqualified as it is, being of a nature to do injury, without the pro-

bability of doing good; the framers of it cannot but expect, to be made amenable to the private judgement of every individual, who feels interested for the credit of the society of which he is a member. For my own part, I should consider myself unworthy the advantages I may have received from a public education, as well as unjust to the sentiment I entertain of the excellency of the Wiccamical institution; did I forego the present opportunity of entering my decided protest against a charge, so far at least as that institution is concerned in it, notoriously false in itself; a charge which I conceive has not been more inconsiderately made, than it has been injudiciously circulated.' P. 417.

This digression is not so improperly introduced as might be imagined, since the author justly distinguishes between a pagan and classic education; and shows the advantage of the latter, in discovering the sources of pagan errors, and teaching the scholar to set a just value on the pure light of revelation. The pagan sacrifices were derived from a pure source; but that source was eventually defiled by horrible superstition; their institution was forgotten, and the faint traces of a tradition alone were retained, and converted to very pernicious purposes. Thus Jews and pagans have both fallen into similar errors: both possessed their sacrifices; but both were too much occupied with ceremonial observances to attend to the grand end for which they were ordained. Christians also may require admonitions upon this head; and if (as we read)

—“there is none other name under heaven given among men, whereby we must be saved, but the name of Jesus of Nazareth;”—Acts iv. 12. it cannot be a matter of indifference, in what character he is acknowledged. For should he not be acknowledged in that most prominent part of his character, in which he has been revealed, as the Redeemer of fallen man; he cannot be acknowledged to any saving purpose. Those therefore who in these enlightened days of the Gospel affect to receive Jesus Christ, in no other character than that of a prophet sent from God, to improve what they understand by the religion of nature; by teaching a more complete system of morality, than that of which the world was before in possession; or as an example of perfect righteousness set up for men to copy after; such persons receive Jesus Christ to their own condemnation; whilst they reject him in the only character in which Christ can stand them in any stead in the day of judgement. For in such case they have received from Christ a law of religious and moral duty, by which they cannot be justified; because they do not keep it; and an example which must condemn them, because they do not imitate it. In the pride of human self-sufficiency they place themselves therefore on the same ground, on which Adam in his state of innocence was unable to stand: and by rejecting the plan of salvation which has been graciously accommodated to their fallen condition, they challenge to themselves judgement unaccompanied with mercy.' P. 365.



This topic is so well discussed in these discourses, that, if they be not calculated for the general reader, and appear too elaborate and studied for common apprehensions, we can recommend them with great confidence to the clergy of every denomination. They will be able to distinguish between the wheat and the small quantity of chaff intermixed with it; and will derive both pleasure and instruction from the mode pursued upon so important a topic. Various passages of Scripture are explained in a very judicious manner; and if the writer were to accustom himself to consider the persons for whom sermons are more particularly intended, he would improve his style, which savours too much of a declining empire; and his arguments would not be the less pleasing and intelligible to the higher class of readers. Every true Christian must applaud him for his intentions, and unite in the wishes he has expressed in the conclusion of his discourses.

‘ If, whilst others of my brethren have been laudably engaged in reforming the lives, and regulating the conduct of their fellow Christians by handling practical subjects, I have judged it more suitable to lay before them a connected series of discourses on one great and fundamental doctrine; from the consideration that some circumstances have led me to trace our common faith to the fountain head, more than many others have been induced to do; and to study and contemplate some of the abstruser points of religion, more perhaps than most of my brethren under different circumstances have deemed necessary; I trust that my present undertaking will not, by a candid public, be imputed to an affectation of displaying deep reading, but to the wish of contributing, in the way I judged myself best qualified, to the support of a cause, in which I am professionally engaged, and to which I am most cordially attached.

‘ Whilst in return for any satisfaction the reader may derive from the perusal of my pages, and from this humble though earnest endeavour to maintain “the faith once delivered to the saints;” all I request of him is, to unite his prayers with mine, that God of his mercy would bring this mysterious subject of atonement home to the heart of every Christian professor; that dwelling with fervent gratitude, on the great theme of redeeming love, his life may bear uniform testimony to the soundness of his faith. At the same time may it be God’s will, so to open the eyes of unbelievers of every description, that they may see the wondrous truths of his law;—that all blindness, hardness of heart, and contempt of his word being taken away, “the earth (in the strong language of the prophet) may be full of the knowledge of the Lord, as the waters cover the sea.” P. 480.

ART. VI.—*Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, &c.*  
(Concluded from p. 251.)

‘XXVII. HINTS relative to the Stimulant Effects of Camphor upon Vegetables. By Benjamin Smith Barton, M.D.’

The fact announced by Dr. Barton in this number, we have already had occasion to notice; viz. that plants, growing in water in which camphor has been dissolved, are seemingly more luxuriant than others growing in water without the addition.

‘XXVIII. Supplementum Indicis Floræ Lancastriensis. Auctore Henrico Muhlenberg. Communicated by Dr. Barton.’

This article can be perused with advantage only in the volume itself.

‘XXIX. On the Mode most easily and effectually practicable of drying up the Marshes of the maritime Parts of North America. By Thomas Wright, Licentiate of the College of Surgeons in Ireland, and Teacher of Anatomy.’

The mode recommended by this author is ventilation, which he proposes to secure by openings through the woods in the direction of the most prevalent winds.

‘XXX. A Memoir on the Discovery of certain Bones of a Quadruped of the Clawed Kind in the Western Parts of Virginia. By Thomas Jefferson, Esq.’

This animal is the megalonyx, of which we have formerly had occasion to speak. It was found in the lime-stone country beyond the Blue Ridge, buried a few feet below the floor of the cavern. From the remaining bones, compared with those of the lion, the animal seems to have been more than three times as large, and still more bulky in proportion. If his agility were equal to his strength and magnitude, he must have been truly formidable. We suspect, however, that this was by no means the case, and that he must have been an easy prey to animals more active, though of smaller size. To this, perhaps, the loss of the species—for we have reason to consider it as lost—may have been owing. The president, however, supposes it may still exist. The earlier visitants of America spoke of lions; and later hunters have been terrified by shining eyes and tremendous roars. The whole is still suspicion alone; and, though we may admit that animals of this kind shun the busy hum of men, if the species still exist, it would probably have been sometimes seen. After all, it admits of some doubt whether these bones might not have belonged to the megatherium.

‘XXXI. A Letter from Mr. John Heckewelder to Benjamin Smith Barton, M.D. containing an Account of an Animal called the Big Naked Bear.’

This animal, like the last, if it ever existed, is no more to be found. We suspect that it only existed in the legends of the



nursery. The description, however, we shall select; for we find from Cuvier—and shall have occasion to notice in the present volume—numerous remains of animals no longer known.

‘ Their reports run thus : that among all animals that had been formerly in this country, this was the most ferocious. That it was much larger, than the largest of the common bears, and remarkably long-bodied : all over, (except a spot of hair on its back of a white colour,) naked. That it attacked and devoured man and beast, and that a man, or a common bear, only served for one meal to one of these animals. That with its teeth it could crack the strongest bones. That it could not see very well, but in discovering its prey by scent, it exceeded all other animals. That it pursued its prey with unremitting ravenousness, and that there was no other way of escaping, but by taking to a river, and either swimming down the same, or saving one’s self by means of a canoe. That its heart being remarkably small, it could seldom be killed with the arrow. That the surest way of destroying him was to break his back-bone. That when a party went out to destroy this animal, they first took leave of their friends and relations at home, considering themselves as going on an expedition, perhaps never to return again. That when out, they sought for his track, carefully attending to the course the wind blew, and endeavouring to keep as near as possible to a river. That every man of the party knew at what part of the body he was to take his aim. That some were to strike at the back-bone, some at the head, and others at the heart. That the last of these animals known of, was on the east side of the Mohicanni Sipu (Hudson’s River) where, after devouring several Indians that were tilling their ground, a resolute party, well provided with bows and arrows, &c. fell upon the following plan, in which they also succeeded, *viz.* knowing of a large high rock, perpendicular on all sides, and level on the top, in the neighbourhood of where the naked bear kept, they made ladders, (Indian ladders) and placing these at the rock, they reconnoitred the ground around, and soon finding a fresh track of the animal, they hastily returned, getting on the top of the rock, and drawing the ladders up after them. They then set up a cry, similar to that of a child, whereupon this animal made its way thither, and attempted to climb the rock, the Indians pouring down their arrows in different directions, all the while upon him. The animal now grew very much enraged, biting with its teeth against the rock, and attempting to tear it with its claws, until at length they had conquered it.’ P, 260.

‘ XXXII. Experiments and Observations on Land and Sea Air. By Adam Seybert, M. D.’

Our author’s experiments support in a great degree Fontana’s conclusions; for he finds that the difference of the purity of the air at different times is much greater than that between the air at different places. In the same city, though the situations and height were varied, its purity was nearly the same. At sea, however, and over the sea in the neighbourhood of land, the air was found to contain a larger proportion of oxygen.

‘XXXIII. Translation of a Memoir on a new Species of Siren. By M. de Beauvois.’

M. Beauvois describes a new species of siren, and contends that these animals should not be confounded with fishes. But not a suspicion of their being larvæ is hinted at. We have lately been sufficiently diffuse on this subject, in our review of the last volume of the Philosophical Transactions. The description of the present article is too deficient to furnish the slightest information.

‘XXXIV. An Attempt to investigate the Causes why the Winters in North America are colder than the Winters in Europe, in the same Latitudes; and why the Eastern Sides of both the Northern Continents are colder than the Western. By Dr. William Barnwell.’

The copy of this article has been mislaid.

‘XXXV. Observations intended to favour a Supposition that the Black Colour (as it is called) of the Negroes is derived from the Leprosy. By Dr. Benjamin Rush.’

This strange fancy of Dr. Rush, apparently the dotings of old age, we have already seen and noticed. Nothing is more trifling and unscientific.

‘XXXVI. An Improvement in Boats for River Navigation, described in a Letter to Mr. Robert Patterson. By Nicholas King.’

In our copy of this volume, the two first pages of this paper are blank, as well as the last page, and the first of the subsequent number: indeed, one side of the sheet R r. The thirty-sixth number is, however, of local importance only.

‘XXXVII. General Principles and Construction of a Submarine Vessel, communicated by D. Bushnell of Connecticut, the Inventor, in a Letter of October, 1787, to Thomas Jefferson, then Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States at Paris.’

This article contains the construction of the tremendous machine which so much terrified of late an august assembly of legislators; viz. the method of fixing a body of exploding materials to the bottom of a ship. It was repeatedly tried against the British shipping during the American war; but, as we predicted, with little success.

‘XXXVIII. The Description of a Mould-board of the least Resistance, and of the easiest and most certain Construction, taken from a Letter to Sir John Sinclair, President of the Board of Agriculture at London.’

This article is incapable of abridgement.

‘XXXIX. Experiments upon Magnetism. Communicated in a Letter to Thomas Jefferson, President of the Philosophical Society. By the Rev. James Madison, President of William and Mary College.’

The object of the author is to prove that the circular arrange-



ment of the filings of iron, sifted over the equator of a magnet, is owing to the attraction of either pole; but that the small particles soon become magnetic; since the extremities, when at rest, are those opposite to the pole which first attracted them. The author's fancy, that magnets act on bodies through magnetic media, and through the air by means of the iron it may contain, is perhaps without sufficient foundation.

'XL. Thermometrical Observations made at Fort Washington, on the Ohio. N. Lat.  $39^{\circ} 3' 5''$ . By Daniel Britt.'

These observations are continued by judge Turner to the 14th of April. The thermometer in this period was from  $20^{\circ}$  to  $88^{\circ}$ —the mean  $54^{\circ}$ . Of the 317 days, 153 were wholly clear; fifty-five partly clear.

'XLI. Calculations relating to Grist and Saw Mills, for determining the Quantity of Water necessary to produce the desired Effect when the Head and Fall are given in order to ascertain the Dimensions of a new invented Steam Engine, intended to give Motion to Water-Wheels in Places where there is no Fall, and but a very small Stream or Spring. By John Nancarrow.'

A most accurate and useful article, but incapable of abridgement.

'XLII. Memoir on Amphibia.'

The author, M. Beauvois, is preparing a dissertation on amphibia in general, which will probably be soon published. The present paper is a part of it. He first treats of the supposed power of the rattle-snake in fascinating animals, which, though he seem not to deny, he is unable to explain. The causes usually assigned, are, for reasons similar to those offered by Dr. Barton, in appearance unfounded. He offers some observations on the manners of the rattle-snake, and confirms the story of the young ones taking shelter in the mother's stomach on the approach of danger; but he seems to deny their eating frogs. It is singular, that a rattle-snake confined in a cage with a living bird will not touch it, though it will devour a dead one at the same time. Their winter habitations are near the water: the entrance small and tortuous, so as not to be affected by the wind, and deep enough to be beyond the influence of frost. The structure of the teeth resembles that of the vipers; the aperture at the fang communicates with the bladder of poison; but the other aperture is at some little distance from the root. The figures on the plate are, however, so carelessly numbered, that much attention is required to understand the engraved illustration. The young teeth are numerous, as the old ones are annually shed. After mentioning M. de la Cépède's arrangement with great respect, our author adds his own observations and corrections, which we shall transcribe.

‘ After this distribution, it appears that the viper, atropos, amodytes, and several which have fangs, and are poisonous, are confounded with the colubres, properly so called, which are not supplied with this species of teeth, and which are all harmless. It seems therefore natural to make a division of this genus already too numerous.

‘ The genus boa offers another confusion which might be avoided. The greater part of serpents of this species are without teeth. There is moreover in America a non-descript serpent (the mokason) which according to the scales under its belly and tail, ought to be arranged among the boas. This species however have not only teeth, but the extremities of their jaws are furnished with fangs like the boiquira.

‘ For these reasons I think the genus coluber ought to be divided into

‘ Vipers (vipera), whose characters would be large plates or scales under the belly. Two rows of imbricated scales under the tail. The extremity of the upper jaw on each side furnished with a hollow fang or canine tooth. Venomous.

‘ (Coluber). Large scales under the belly. Two rows of imbricated scales under the tail. All the teeth alike. No fang or canine tooth. Harmless.

‘ (Boa). Large scales under the belly and tail. The tail without rattles. No teeth.

‘ Cenchris. Large scales under the belly and tail. The tail without rattles. Small equal teeth.

‘ Ankistrodon. Large scales under the belly and tail. No rattles. The extremity of the upper jaw furnished with two hollow fangs or canine teeth. Venomous.

‘ In this last division should be arranged the mokason.’ p. 380.

‘ XLIV. (Misprinted LXIV.) An Inquiry into the comparative Effects of the Opium Officinarum, extracted from the Papaver Somniferum or White Poppy of Linnæus; and of that procured from the Lactuca Sativa, or common cultivated Lettuce of the same Author. By John Redman Coxe, M.D. an Honorary Member of the Philadelphia Medical Society, and a Senior Member of the Chemical Society of Philadelphia.’

This paper, like many in the present volume, is too tedious and tautologic. The author, however, very clearly proves, that the extract from the common lettuce is very similar to that from the poppy, while the culture and preparation are much less expensive.

‘ XLV. (LXV.) Experiments and Observations on the Atmosphere of Marshes. By Adam Seybert, M. D.’

In this paper, the author endeavours to show that the air over marshes differs only in its proportion of carbonic acid gas. When mud, however, is agitated with pure air, hydrogen gas is obtained, which arises, in our author’s opinion, from the putrefaction of vegetable and animal matters. The same effects are not



observed in examining the air over marshes, since the impurity is supposed to be checked by ventilation, by the vegetating plants in the neighbourhood, by the mud drying, or, on the other hand, by the marsh being overflowed. Dr. Seybert endeavoured to find ammoniac gas, nitric acid, as well as sulphurated and phosphorated gases, as the effects of putrefaction, and of the consequent new combinations, but without success. Indeed, if produced, they must have been absorbed by the water; but the author was a little too much influenced by his pre-conceived opinions when he sought for them. In reality, from the experiments of some accurate philosophers, marshy air seems little, if at all, inferior to common air; and, as we have already hinted, its deleterious influence is not traced by the eudiometer. Our author seems to suppose marshes chiefly useful by lowering the quality of too pure an air.

‘XLVI. (LXVI.) An Account of a Kettle for boiling Inflammable Fluids.—In a Letter from Thomas P. Smith, to Robert Patterson.’

Incapable of abridgement.

‘XLVII. (LXVII.) An Essay on a new Method of treating the Effusion which collects under the Scull after Fractures of the Head. By J. Deveze, Officer of Health, of the first Class, in the French Armies.’

When blood is collected between the skull and dura mater, in consequence of a fracture producing marks of compression, and on trepanning the collection is not discovered, instead of repeating the operation, M. Deveze proposes separating the dura mater from the skull in the direction of the fracture, by which it may be discovered and evacuated. This separation he thinks by no means dangerous; in one case, it certainly succeeded, and was performed by a flexible spatula.

‘XLVIII\*. Memoir on the Sand-hills of Cape Henry in Virginia. By B. Henry Latrobe, Engineer.’

‘XLIX. Supplement to Mr. Latrobe’s Memoir.’

This number contains some curious remarks relating to the accumulation of sand by the sea, at Cape Henry, which is carried further by the wind. The coast is by these means raised considerably; and trees, as well as the remains of animals, are buried at a great depth. The whole country below the falls of James’ River seems to have been gained from the sea, which is now 100 miles distant from the former. Many proofs of this cause operating slowly, without any considerable appearance of convulsion, are subjoined.

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\* The error of the numbering is continued through the volume, in consequence of the first mistake, which arose from placing the X after the L instead of before it. Consequently, twenty are added to the number of each article. We have adhered to the true order. REV.

' L. Account of Crystallised Basaltes found in Pennsylvania. By Thomas P. Smith.'

These were chiefly found on the Conewaga Hills; and their branches, in one place, interspersed with breccia, consisting of rounded pebbles in a freestone bed, a sufficient proof of their Neptunian origin.

' LI. Observations for determining the Latitude and Longitude of the Town of Natchez. By Andrew Ellicott, Esq. Commissioner on the Part of the United States for running the Line of Demarkation between them and the Spanish Territory. Communicated to the Society by R. Patterson.'

The latitude is  $31^{\circ} 33' 48''$ . The longitude  $16^{\circ} 15' 46''$  W. from Philadelphia.

' LII. An Answer to Dr. Joseph Priestley's Considerations on the Doctrine of Phlogiston, and the Decomposition of Water; founded upon demonstrative Experiments. By James Woodhouse, M. D. Professor of Chemistry in the University of Pennsylvania, &c.'

Already noticed, and called LXXII.

' LIII. Philological View of some very ancient Words in several Languages. By the Rev. Nicholas Collin, D. D. Rector of the Swedish Churches in Pennsylvania.'

This is an interesting specimen of a more extensive disquisition, which its very miscellaneous nature prevents us from enlarging on so fully as we could wish. That the whole of our stock of words is originally Asiatic 'exceeds,' says our author, 'our present knowledge.' His great object seems to be an inquiry whether language had one common origin, according to the Mosaic account, or whether man was originally without speech, and acquired language from his own exertions to supply his wants. It is seemingly with this design, that, in the first article, 'On the early State of Mankind,' he examines the different terms for the most general and common objects. These are so dissimilar, that, though he does not draw the conclusion, he seems to imply that they cannot have been derived from the same original source. If, therefore, the confusion of languages on the dispersion of mankind be *not taken into the account*, the Mosaic doctrine, of the origin of languages from inspiration, would not be probable. The second article is 'On the early Condition of the Earth, Animals, and Vegetables.' The extensive employment of the terms which relate to water, show that many places now dry were once covered with the sea. The co-incidences of this kind mentioned by our author, and another by Mr. Pinkerton, noticed in our Journal, *viz.* that the same appellative denoted mountains and forests, as these generally covered the mountains, are facts of the highest importance in assisting us to comprehend ancient descriptions. We wish for much more of this very rational and instructive etymology. The observations



that succeed, respecting extinct species, are very judicious. We now find some species confined to a single spot of land and water. Should this become, by any change, unfit for their residence, the species must necessarily be lost. If we pursue these speculations, we shall not be surprised at the number of skeletons described by Cuvier, of which the animals are unknown. —But to return to our author.

‘ The analogy so visible in the order of Divine Providence makes it very probable that a rude earth and barbarous men had congenial animals; and that some of these became extinct in the course of moral and physical improvement. Works of ancient naturalists, and popular traditions confirm this; a true philosopher will not deem the whole fabulous, because a part is extravagant. That the hydra in the Lerna-marsh had seven heads is less probable; but that monsters with more than one have existed is very credible to those who know the double-headed serpents of America. The terrible venom of some serpents appears in their names—Gr. *πυρσσηκη*; H. Ch. *פֶּתוֹ* and *שָׂרָף* are literally *burners*—H. Ch. *צַפֵּץ* was named from its poisonous breath—such are at this time found about lake Erie. All Asia and Europe have traditions about the dragon, as a huge, winged, fiery serpent. Its names are: Gr. *δρακων*, G. *drach*, H. *draak*, S. *drake*, Fr. *dragon*, R. *dracon*, W. *draig*, &c. Ia. *firio*; Ch. *lum*; which all mean *fire*. Its figure was also adopted on armorials and military standards—both render its existence probable. Amphibious animals of inland waters must disappear with these: thus tribes of water-snakes and lizards may be gone; and the dreadful crocodile will also depart—Large land quadrupeds decrease as fast as men increase, because they cannot hide from them nor find sufficient food. In new countries, as great parts of America, extinctions may be recent; and consequently many undecayed reliques may be found.

‘ Old names for woods discover their former extent, and the progress of human settlements. Names that signify species of trees, shrubs and plants, show the former places of such. Vegetables of remarkable properties were generally named accordingly at an early period: in some cases the knowledge of such is lost; but may be recovered by exploring the names. Reflecting from this principle on the many plants in several languages that imply qualities both for preserving and restoring health, I often wish with a sigh, that fanatical and inhuman medical theorists would consult simple country people, nay savages! for my part I infinitely prefer the Indian feverbush to the arsenic ague drop, and all the chemistry of corrosive minerals.’ p. 506.

‘ LIV. Memoir on the extraneous Fossils, denominated Mammoth Bones: principally designed to show, that they are the Remains of more than one Species of non-descript Animal. By George Turner, Member of the A. P. S. Honorary and Corresponding Member of the Bath and West of England Society, &c.’

The mammoth bones are chiefly found on the west of the

Alleghany mountains, though not wholly unknown in the eastern states, which, we have said, probably emerged from the sea at a later period. The vast bones of this animal, probably the megalonyx, show it to have been of immense size, and one species was probably carnivorous. The necessity of salt to cattle, in these inland regions, renders those districts where it is discovered the resort of numerous herds. One of these is 'the Great-Bone Lick,' a stream of shallow salt water running into the Ohio; and many remaining bones of buffaloes are discovered in this spot. Indian tradition says, that these animals were devoured by a herd of mammoths, which were in turn destroyed by the 'Great Man above,' who would not allow his favourite red men to be deprived of their cattle. In support of one part of this tradition at least, our author, on visiting this spot, found all the longer bones broken. He describes the teeth of two species of unknown animals, one of which is herbivorous, with great precision.

'LV. Description of a speedy Elevator. By the Inventor, Nicholas Collin, D.D. with two Drawings from a Model, representing it folded and wound up.'

This description we cannot abridge.

'LVI. A Description of the Bones deposited, by the President, in the Museum of the Society, and represented in the annexed Plates. By C. Wistar, M.D. Adjunct Professor of Anatomy, &c. in the University of Pennsylvania.'

This last article depends almost wholly on the plates, and cannot be rendered intelligible without them.

The volume concludes with a general index to the four volumes; which, though they succeed each other slowly, increase progressively in merit and interest. In a world whose natural history has been merely glanced at, much remains to be done—the harvest is great; but the labourers are apparently few.

ART. VII.—*Elements of General Knowledge, introductory to useful Books in the principal Branches of Literature and Science. With Lists of the most approved Authors. Designed chiefly for the junior Students in the Universities, and the higher Classes in Schools. By Henry Kett, B.D. Fellow and Tutor of Trinity College, Oxford. 2 Vols. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1802.*

THERE is something very fascinating in the term *general knowledge*. To be introduced into the company of those immortal authors who have best illustrated science and learning, to be made acquainted with their principal beauties, and to be qualified for a fuller sensation of their excellencies, cannot but



be objects of desire, even to the most untutored mind; and when all this can be accomplished with great ease and little labour, when a mown and velvet path conducts to an eminence commanding a most delightful prospect, is it possible to be possessed of so sluggish and inactive a character as not to pant for the pleasure of the walk, and the gratification afforded at its termination? Such are the pretensions of the work before us, as conveyed in the following statement of its object:

‘ I consider myself as assuming the office of a guide to the youthful and inexperienced traveler, and as undertaking to point out the interesting prospects of a charming country, without aspiring to the accuracy of a topographer, or the diligence of an antiquarian. I shall conduct him, who commits himself to my directions, from a low and narrow valley, where his views have been closely confined, to the summit of a lofty mountain: when he has reached the proper point of view, he will feel his faculties expand, he will breathe a purer air, enjoy a wider horizon, and observe woods, lakes, mountains, plains, and rivers, spreading beneath his feet in delightful prospect. From this commanding eminence, I shall point out such places as are most deserving his researches; and finally, I shall recommend him to those, who will prove more instructive, and more pleasing companions, through the remaining part of his journey.’ Vol. i. p. xxxix.

This reminds us of a passage in the decree for public examinations at Oxford, in which the courteous superiors of the university seem exceedingly fearful of terrifying youth with the difficulties of science, and would make a course of study appear quite a pleasant amusement—‘*Nihil enim triste aut asperum molimur. Lenitati ubique consultum volumus, modo ne ea sit, quæ juniorum socordiae patrocinari videatur.*’ We accede entirely to the opinion of that erudite body, that learning cannot be made too palatable for young minds, provided that, in favouring, we do not vitiate their taste, and, by consenting to a slothful habit of reading, incapacitate them for mental exertion.

Against this effect of indulgence, the sister university provides with great prudence and discretion. The severest studies are open to the ambition of its students; and it is found, by the experience of half a century, that, while the juvenile mind is thus fortified at Cambridge, it is by no means disqualified for the lighter studies of Oxford. Its chief proficient in mathematical learning have, throughout the whole of this period, far excelled their competitors of the rival school, while, as to classical literature, it yields not to its sister institution in ability, though far inferior in the number of its pupils. General knowledge may very well serve for an amusing course of lectures; but it is only by severe application to some particular study that a great mind can discover its original powers. A Bacon, a Milton, a Newton, a Locke, a Hartley, are not to be produced without laborious mental exertions.

The work before us will not be adapted to the Cambridge scholar; it discourses too much for their taste *de omni scibili, et de quolibet ente*. This is obvious from the nature of its contents, which are divided into six classes—I. Religion. II. Language. III. History. IV. Philosophy. V. Polite literature and the fine arts. VI. The sources of our national prosperity. The examination of these subjects is introduced by an encomium on general knowledge; and we agree entirely with our author, that 'an invariable and exclusive application to any one pursuit is the certain mark of a contracted education.' But here, again, we cannot avoid adverting to the Cambridge mode of study, which is so excellently arranged, that while no young man can pass creditably through his course without giving attention to a variety of subjects, mathematics and classics are esteemed—as they ought to be—the grand basis of his initiation, which nevertheless, in his public exercises and declamations, afford ample scope for his talents in history, moral philosophy, and polite letters.

The question of 'religion' is treated with more animation than precision. The infidel of course is fair game; but Bacon, Locke, Newton, and Milton, might still have been advantageously contrasted with men of this description of later date, though a little more regard had been discovered for their talents.

'To compare the race of modern infidels in point of genius, learning, science, judgement, or love of truth; to compare Voltaire, Hume, Gibbon, Godwin, and Payne, with such men as these, were surely as idle, and as absurd, as to compare the weakness of infancy with the maturity of manhood; the flutter of a butterfly with the vigorous soaring of an eagle; or the twinkling of a star with the glory of the sun, illuminating the universe with his meridian brightness.' Vol. i. p. 53.

A section is dedicated to the church of England, in which it is said that 'the constitution of the state, in return for the alliance which it has formed with the church, derives from the association additional security for the observance of the laws and the preservation of order.' In the united kingdom there are two established churches, those of England and of Scotland—Does the author mean that the state has entered into alliance with each? or from which has it derived the greatest security? We thought that this wild notion of church-and-state alliance had been long relinquished by every scholar; every man of the world knows it to be a fiction, and that, in Britain, no society whatsoever can pretend to form an alliance with the state, nor has pretended, since the abolition of popery.

General language is treated of in one chapter, in which our author must expect no quarter from the Welch, when he asserts that 'the present languages and dialects of Europe, amounting



to about twenty-seven, may be traced to the Latin, German, and Sclavonian, that is, in fact, only to two sources, for the Latin and German are only dialects of the Teutonic. We cannot but allow to the oldest inhabitants of Europe, the Welch, the Irish, the highlanders of Scotland, the inhabitants of Bretagne, and the mountaineers of Biscay, some claim to distinction in this respect; and perhaps their language may boast of as great antiquity as the Teutonic, the Arabic, or the Shanscrit. In tracing the connexion of languages, only a meagre catalogue is offered; and, in this, scarcely any distinction is made between original languages and derivative dialects. Thus it is said, that—

‘— the words which express near degrees of relationship extend very widely. *Father* in English, in Saxon is *fader*, in German *vater*, in Belgic *vader*, in Islandic and Danish *fader*, in Latin *pater*, and in Greek *πατήρ*: in Persian it is *pāder*, in Sanscrit *peetre*. In like manner may be traced אבא *papa*, *abbot*, *pope*, &c.’ Vol. i. p. 92.

Now in this instance we find only three original languages, the Teutonic, the Hebrew, and the Shanscrit. For *mother*, we are sent to the Greek, Saxon, German, Spanish, Italian, Danish, Dutch, Persian—which are all dialects alone of the Teutonic—to the Shanscrit, Welsh, Hebrew, and Hindustannée. The argument, to be fairly tried, should trace the number of words to be found in every original existing language; and it is probable that not one radix is so far lost as not to be discoverable by a little care in some of the dialects originating from it. The particular chapters on language are dedicated to the English, Greek, and Latin, of which the first occupies two; but surely, in the ample field through which the author chose to expatiate, it was scarcely justifiable to detain his scholar so long by the purling streams and shady groves of the Teutonic order alone. The Chinese, the Arabic, the Sclavonian, the Shanscrit, are each entitled to a larger portion in a book of general knowledge than these three dialects of a single tongue.

From the consideration of language in general, we are carried to that of history in general, which is discussed in two chapters. We then advance to particular histories, of which the Jewish has, with propriety, the precedency; and to it one chapter is dedicated: the three next comprise the Grecian history; and the two following that of Rome. Modern Europe is honoured with two chapters; and the subject is still prosecuted in two other chapters on the history of England. Thus our author carries us no further than through the old beaten path; and the student will rise from this general view with historical information respecting a very small portion only of mankind. From the comparisons actually made, the author finds, as may be expected, that the English constitution is the best of all possible constitu-

tions; and that no people upon earth can boast of equal comforts with ourselves.

Under the head of 'philosophy' are introduced logic, the mathematics, and natural history, which are contained in five chapters, or 138 pages. All these subjects are disposed of in a very superficial manner; and the mathematician will smile at a note which describes the discoveries of Kepler and Newton.

'The rules which Kepler had founded upon the observation of Tycho Brahe, the celebrated Danish philosopher, were three; 1. That the same planets described about the sun equal axes in equal times. 2. That in different planets the squares of the periodical times were as the orbs transverse axes of their orbits. 3. That their orbits were undoubtedly oval, and probably ellipses, the sun being the common focus. From the first phenomenon, Newton demonstrated that the planets were attracted towards the sun in the centre. From the 2d, that the force of this attraction was reciprocally as the squares of the distances of the planets from this centre; and then from this duplicate proportion he demonstrated the truth of Kepler's conjecture: in the 3d, that their orbits were actually ellipses, the sun being placed in the lower focus.' Vol. ii. p. 50.

Two chapters are allotted to polite literature and the fine arts, which are confined chiefly to some remarks on taste and genius, and judicious observations on persons distinguished for those qualities. The five remaining chapters are dedicated to the sources of our national prosperity, in which are considered the advantages of agriculture, commerce, and foreign travel, and the attainments requisite for the professions of the barrister, the physician, and the clergyman.

Throughout the work, we have undoubtedly met with many excellent remarks; but the author is more studious of the garb in which his sentiments should be conveyed, than of the real qualities of the subject under discussion. He seems not to have paid sufficient attention to the distinction in that well-known verse of Manilius (iii, 39)

'Ornari res ipsa negat, contenta doceri.'

Every subject becomes the source of an eulogy; and the first truths of an elementary book are inflated with all the pomp and magnificence of *verbiage*. A book of general knowledge can, in the dimensions of the work before us, give only superficial ideas; and it is not extraordinary, if, from the 'eminence' on which our author was seated, many tracts of country should entirely escape his notice, or if he should feel more attraction towards the beauty of some particular spot than its real merits would justify. Still the author is much to be commended for his attempt to entice his pupils into a course of study; and as they have expressed great satisfaction at hearing the remarks in these volumes de-



tailed to them occasionally in lectures during the last twelve years, our readers may be assured of deriving no small degree of similar profit and entertainment from the same remarks committed to paper.

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ART. VIII.—*Poems by Mrs. Opie.* 8vo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1802.

A Century ago—notwithstanding we had never been altogether without female attempts, and those occasionally successful—it was still thought wonderful in England that a woman should versify; her poems were ushered into the world under the patronage of the great, and prefaced by the praise of the learned: she acquired fame equal to her wishes; and it perished with her. The females of our own age claim a more just and durable celebrity. Miss Seward, Mrs. Barbauld, Charlotte Smith, will take their place among the English poets for centuries to come. Mrs. Opie's talents are already known to the public. Her contributions to the Annual Anthology have been generally selected for commendation; and her '*Father and Daughter*' has been deservedly praised as a novel.

The productions of this lady are always in a melancholy strain, and therefore more effectually convey their moral import. What follows will not be read without emotion?

*'The dying Daughter to her Mother.'*

' Mother! when these unsteady lines  
Thy long averted eyes shall see,  
This hand that writes, this heart that pines,  
Will cold, quite cold, and tranquil be.

' That guilty child so long disowned  
Can then, blest thought! no more offend;  
And, shouldst thou deem my crimes atoned,  
O deign my orphan to befriend:

' That orphan, who with trembling hand  
To thee will give my dying prayer;—  
Canst thou my dying prayer withstand,  
And from my child withhold thy care?

' O raise the veil which hides her cheek,  
Nor start her mother's face to see,  
But let her look thy love bespeak,—  
For once that face was dear to thee.

' Gaze on,—and thou'lt perchance forget  
The long, the mournful lapse of years,  
Thy couch with tears of anguish wet,  
And e'en the guilt which caused those tears.

And in my pure and artless child  
Thou'lt think her mother meets thy view;  
Such as she was when life first smiled,  
And guilt by name alone she knew.

Ah! then I see thee o'er her charms  
A look of fond affection cast;  
I see thee clasp her in thine arms,  
And in the present lose the past.

But soon the dear illusion flies;  
The sad reality returns;  
My crimes again to memory rise,  
And, ah! in vain my orphan mourns:

Till suddenly some keen remorse,  
Some deep regret, her claims shall aid,  
For wrath that held too long its course,  
For words of peace too long delayed.

For pardon, (most, alas! denied  
When pardon might have snatched from shame)  
And kindness, hadst thou kindness tried,  
Had checked my guilt, and saved my fame.

And then thou'lt wish, as I do now,  
Thy hand my humble bed had smoothed,  
Wiped the chill moisture off my brow,  
And all the wants of sickness soothed.

For, oh! the means to sooth my pain  
My poverty has still denied;  
And thou wilt wish, ah! wish in vain,  
Thy riches had those means supplied.

Thou'lt wish, with keen repentance wrung,  
I'd closed my eyes, upon thy breast  
Expiring, while thy faltering tongue  
Pardon in kindest tones expressed.

O sounds which I must never hear!  
Through years of woe my fond desire!  
O mother, spite of all most dear!  
Must I unblest by thee expire?

Thy love alone I call to mind,  
And all thy past disdain forget,—  
Each keen reproach, each frown unkind,  
That crushed my hopes when last we met.

But when I saw that angry brow,  
Both health and youth were still my own;  
O mother! couldst thou see me now,  
Thou wouldst not have the heart to frown.



‘ But see! my orphan’s cheek displays  
Both youth, and health’s carnation dies,  
Such as on mine in happier days  
So fondly charmed thy partial eyes.

‘ Grief o’er her bloom a veil now draws,  
Grief her loved parent’s pangs to see;  
And when thou think’st upon the cause,  
That paleness will have charms for thee :

‘ And thou wilt fondly press that cheek,  
Bid happiness its bloom restore,  
And thus in tenderest accents speak,

“ Sweet orphan, thou shalt mourn no more.”

‘ But wilt thou thus indulgent be ?  
O ! am I not by hope beguiled ?  
The long long anger shown to me,  
Say, will it not pursue my child ?

‘ And must she suffer for my crime ?  
Ah ! no ;—forbid it gracious Heaven !  
And grant, O grant ! in thy good time,  
That she be loved, and I forgiven !” P. 3.

‘ The Maid of Corinth to her Lover.’ This is the longest poem in the volume: the story is well known.

‘ Yes—I beheld thee, (hour with blessings fraught!)  
As on thy hand thy sleep-flushed cheek reposed.  
Yet I, at first, by cold decorum taught,  
Fled, and with blushing haste the portal closed.

‘ But soon Affection fondly checked my flight :  
She whisper’d, “ View that winning form once more :  
Remember, he who lately charmed thy sight  
Will seek at morning’s dawn a distant shore.”

‘ At that idea frigid caution fled :  
To passion’s sway resigning all my soul,  
And hurrying back, with timid, trembling tread,  
With breath suspended to thy couch I stole.

‘ Long time I stood in tender thoughts entranced,  
Gazing unchecked—a new unwonted bliss,—  
Now to thy cheek my trembling lips advanced,  
Nor quite bestowed, nor quite withheld the kiss.

“ And must that form delight my eyes no more?”  
I softly murmured, as regret impelled,  
When, lo ! with rapture never felt before,  
I thy dear shadow on the wall beheld.

‘ That moment, Love upon his votary smiled,  
My hand his sceptre, and his throne my breast ;  
He fired the thought which then my grief beguiled,  
And which to future times will make me blest.

' With eager haste I seized a slender wand,  
Which near the couch a friendly power had placed,  
And with a beating heart, a trembling hand,  
Along the wall the faithful shadow traced.

' O happy moment ! how my bosom burned  
With transport, rich reward for all my pain,  
When, though thy head in various postures turned,  
I saw the outline still unchang'd remain !' p. 18.

This epistle is extended to too great a length : the prophecy of the progress of painting, and the vision, might have been well omitted.

' The Negro Boy's Tale' is told in the broken language of the slaves : peculiarities of this kind always excite the reader's attention ; but when the language is thus dramatically preserved, the thoughts also should be in character. Zambo is too poetical.

" Missa, dey say dat our black skin  
Be ugly, ugly to de sight ;  
But surely if dey look vidin,  
Missa, de negro's heart be vite.

" Yon cocoa nut no smooth as silk,  
But rough and ugly is de rind :  
Ope it, sweet meat and sweeter milk  
Vidin dat ugly coat ve find.

" Ah missa ! smiling in your tear,  
I see you know vat I'd impart ;  
De cocoa husk de skin I vear,  
De milk vidin be Zambo's heart." p. 69.

Many other pieces in this volume are alike excellent in their design. ' The Address of a Felon to his Child,' ' Fatherless Fanny,' ' The Orphan Boy's Tale,' ' Lines to the Society for the Relief of Persons confined for small Debts'—all these deserve to be mentioned with praise for the feeling as well as for the genius they discover.

There are some defects in the versification of the following poem, which is perhaps the most beautiful in the collection :

*' The Virgin's first Love.*

' Yes,—sweet is the joy when our blushes impart  
The youthful affection that glows in the heart,  
If prudence, and duty, and reason approve  
The timid delight of the virgin's first love.

' But if the fond virgin be destined to feel  
A passion she must in her bosom conceal,  
Lest parents relentless the flame disapprove,—  
Where's ~~then~~ the delight of the virgin's first love ?



‘ If stolen the glance by which love is express,  
If sighs when half heaved be with terror suppress,  
If whispers of passion suspicion must move,  
Where’s then the delight of the virgin’s first love?

‘ Or if (ah! too faithful!) with fondness she sighs  
For one who has ceased her affection to prize,  
Forgetting the vows by whose magic he strove  
To gain that rich treasure the virgin’s first love,—

‘ If tempted by interest he venture to shun  
The gentle affection his tenderness won,  
Through passion’s soft maze with another to rove,—  
Where’s then the delight of the virgin’s first love?

‘ Her eye, when the tale of his treachery she hears,  
Now beams with disdain, and now glistens with tears;  
Ah! what can the arrow then rankling remove?  
Farewell the delight of the virgin’s first love!

‘ And see, sad companion of mental distress,  
Disease steals upon her in health’s flattering dress,  
Oh! surely that bloom every fear should remove!  
Ah! no;—’tis *the effect* of the virgin’s first love.

‘ Still brighter the colour appears on her cheek,  
Her eye boasts a lustre no language can speak;—  
But vain are the hopes these appearances move,  
Fond parent! they spring from the virgin’s first love.

‘ And soon, while unconscious that fate hovers near,  
While hope’s flattering smiles on her features appear,  
No struggle, no groan, his approaches to prove,  
Death ends the fond dream of the virgin’s first love.’ P. 127.

*the effect* is too harsh an elision: it would be unpleasant in any metre, and is particularly so in the anapaestic.

The songs are mostly upon the subject common to all songs; but they are not of common-place merit. Perhaps no language is so destitute of even tolerable songs as our own. The vilest rhymes that a Vauxhall verse-monger can string together become fashionable, and are committed to memory by half our women, if the composer have succeeded in his part. Music was once the secondary art, and became of consequence only when ‘married to immortal verse’—now verse is become a mere vehicle of sound; the nonsense of the nursery is set to music, and is not more nonsensical than the volumes full of love-songs that load the harpsichord. Are we become more sensual and less intellectual? ‘I care not,’ said Fletcher of Saltoun, ‘who makes the laws of a country, so I might make its ballads.’ But Fletcher was a Scotchman. Were we to arrange nations in the scale of intellect by the merit of their popular songs (and the test at first

sight appears a fair one) Scotland would rank highest, and England last.

In 'Fatherless Fanny,' and the other pieces of the same class, there is a want of dramatic truth. Their characters speak with a refinement of feeling which cannot belong to them. Liberty of this kind is granted to poets; but this liberty too often becomes licence—poets and peers confess themselves guilty when they plead privilege in their defence. On the whole, we have derived considerable pleasure from this little volume.

ART. IX.—*Sermons on the Dignity of Man, and the Value of the Objects principally relating to Human Happiness. From the German of the late Rev. George Joachim Zollikofer, Minister of the reformed Congregation at Leipsick. By the Rev. William Tooke, F. R. S. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Longman and Rees. 1802.*

THESE sermons are in the highest estimation in Germany. They were addressed to an audience distinguished for its taste and science, and in a district of Saxony in which the German language is supposed to be spoken with classical purity; while the preacher himself was celebrated for the chastity and elegance of his diction. Prefixed to the sermons is a short account of his life, from which we shall extract a few particulars not wholly uninteresting to our readers.

George Joachim Zollikofer was born at St. Gall in Switzerland, August 5, 1730. His father, a worthy practitioner of the law, withheld no expense in his education; and, after the usual progress through the school of his native town, being designed for the church, he was sent first to Bremen, and thence to the university of Utrecht, where the divinity professors are said to have been in high repute. Zollikofer was not, however, one of the dull herd who adhere pertinaciously to every thing instilled into them in a lecture-room, and are incapable of advancing a step beyond the routine of opinions, to which, from custom or articles, the tutors themselves are bound to accede. He was obliged, indeed, to attend lectures, as he once mentioned to a friend, on a systematic theology, resting solely on 'unproved formularies, sophisms, technical and scholastic terms of the compendiums at that time in general use, instead of a sound exposition of the Bible, in connexion with a strict investigation of ecclesiastical history:' but his sermons and books of devotion did not receive the least taint from the miserable theology into which he became thus initiated. His fate, however, was by no means uncommon; for how many men of study are daily found to repeat the same sentiment! 'The little that I know,'

this modest man was heard to say, 'I was obliged to teach myself chiefly after I was come to years of maturity; for I had but a miserable education.'

Leaving the university, he became first a preacher at Murten in the Pays de Vaud, whence he was translated to Monstein in the Grisons, and soon after was invited to Isenburg. None of these places enjoyed him long; for, at the age of eight-and-twenty, he was appointed to the office of preacher to the reformed church at Leipsic. This was a theatre worthy of his abilities; and his church was soon crowded with the chief people of the city, and the members of the university. His attention was not confined to the pulpit. Psalmody and prayer formed, in his estimation, an essential part of public worship; and his selection of hymns, in which the productions of the most esteemed modern poets of Germany—Gellert, Cramer, and Klopstock, were not forgotten, appeared in 1766. He was twice married; but both marriages were childless. After having fulfilled the duties of his place till within a year of his decease, he formed the resolution of resigning his office; but, at the united request of his congregation, who acceded to his preaching a discourse only once a fortnight, he was still induced to remain in his situation. A short time only elapsed before he was called from them, after an illness extremely painful, which he bore with the patience of a wise man, and the resignation of a Christian; for, on the twenty-second of January, 1788, he gently sunk into the arms of death. 'The whole of his numerous congregation, together with some hundred students of the university, attended his body to the grave on the twenty-fifth, with every token of unfeigned sorrow.'

Zollikofer, from the time that he quitted the university, studied the best models of composition, and was particularly attached to Cicero, impressed perhaps with the remark of Quintilian—*Ille se profecisse sciat, cui Cicero valde placebit*. At the same time, no part of moral or political knowledge escaped him; and to continual study and meditation on the Scriptures, he added an intimate acquaintance with profane history. His social and domestic conduct corresponded with the doctrines he taught from the pulpit. Entirely free from that affected gravity but real arrogance which distinguishes many divines, he was easy of access to all. The poor and indigent beheld in him a father and a friend; and his bounty and his kindness were not confined within the limits of his own church and his own sect; they were extended to all who stood in need of his assistance. Cheerfulness reigned in his heart; his conversation was animated and entertaining; and his raillery, in which he very rarely indulged, the mildest possible. Above all, he paid the strictest regard to veracity. 'Whatever he said was true; every word he uttered might be relied on, as conveying the real



sentiments of his heart; and never did he commend or approve from complaisance any thing that was contrary to the conviction of his mind, or that he saw could not be approved upon the strictest rules of morality.'

The discourses now translated refer, as the title-page expresses, to the dignity of man and the objects of human happiness. They were not composed systematically: yet there is an order which embraces them all; and nothing is omitted which bears upon the two grand subjects here proposed. The discourses are not dry and didactic, but full of animation and energy; they speak to the heart; they disclose to man what he is intended to be, and on what trifling objects the majority of his species make their happiness depend. The dignity of man is indeed a subject much reprobated by a peculiar sect among us, who love rather to represent him in his fallen and degraded state, forgetting that the end of our Saviour's advent was to release us from such humiliation; and that being now animated by the spirit of love, instead of that of fear, we should be impressed with sentiments more dignified, and press forward constantly to that exalted character without the possession of which we cannot be happy in the life to come. In this point of view, the sermons before us are highly worthy of the attention of the young English divine; and, as they are very easily analysed, he would find his compositions gradually improved, if, after several times reading one of them over, he would select its chief heads, and, in his own language, dilate upon them from the pulpit. Were he thus to act, he might soon dispense with his notes: he would in a short time acquire a sufficient facility of addressing an audience from his memory, of speaking to their hearts, and of impressing them with sentiments worthy of his office.

The first discourse developes in what man's dignity consists—the second, what is derogatory to it—the third, by what means his dignity is restored by Christianity. Of the next eleven discourses, the subjects are the value of human life—of health—of riches—of honour—of sensual pleasure—of intellectual pleasures—of devotion—of sensibility—of virtue—and the superior value of Christian virtue. The two ensuing treat on the pleasures of virtue, and why they are not more enjoyed by virtuous persons. The value of religion in general—and the Christian religion in particular—of the human soul—of the life of man upon earth—and the importance of every year, form the topics for six discourses. The danger of too frequent diversions—the importance of the doctrine of our immortality—and the nature of spiritual experiences, are treated in the three last; and with these the first volume concludes.

In the second volume are twenty-six sermons, of which the first thirteen discourse on the value of social and public wor-

ship—on solitude—on social life—on a busy life—on commerce—on a country life—on domestic happiness—on friendship—on civil and religious liberty—on learning—on more enlightened times—on afflictions and tribulations—and on a good reputation.—Conversion from a bad course of life—the blessedness of beneficence—the value of human happiness—fixed notions concerning it—the difference between prosperity and happiness—view of the sources of human happiness—the Christian doctrine concerning happiness—arguments against vanity—rules for rightly appreciating the value of things—the vanity of all earthly concerns—the practical character of Jesus Christ—the imitation of his example—and the nature of the pastoral office, form the subjects of the last thirteen sermons.

Prefixed to every sermon is a prayer referring in general to the topic of the discourse; and as this is a practice adopted in most churches, from which, indeed, our own establishment offers no deviation, the young divine will be much assisted in his compositions by attending to the piety, the just application, and the animated expression, which characterise the prayers of Zollikofer. To us they afford the due mean between the short ejaculations used in the pulpits of the church of England (which are frequently taken at random, and have not the least reference to the discourse) and the long prayer of the dissenters, where the preacher is equally exhausting himself and his congregation by a didactic exercise.

From the variety of topics under which these discourses are ranged, it would not be difficult to select numerous passages to gratify the curiosity of our readers, and to display the talents of the preacher. We shall content ourselves with one or two, from which a general idea may be formed both of these compositions and of their translation. M. Zollikofer, having, in a preceding discourse, ascertained the value of virtue in general, advances, in that which follows, to a consideration of the superior value of Christian virtue; after many excellent observations upon which, he sums up the whole towards the conclusion in the following manner.

‘How much more noble and grand are not, lastly, the views of Christian virtue! How much superior and more excellent the mark at which it aims! All virtue has in view the promoting of what is true, what is beautiful and good; all virtue aims at order, at perfection, at happiness. But not as Christian virtue does. The greater and juster the knowledge is which the Christian has of God, of Jesus, of the chief end of man, and of futurity; so much the nobler must be his sentiments, so much the more comprehensive his views, so much the more exalted the purpose he pursues!—The whole human race is but one large family to him, and that the family of God, his heavenly father; a family which he embraces with his benevolence, and visits with his love; and his affectionate activity

is circumscribed by no false patriotism, is weakened by no prejudices of rank or nation—Jesus is to him, Jesus that is highly exalted over all, is to him the lord and king of men; truth and virtue and freedom and happiness, are the privileges and distinctions of his kingdom; and every word, every deed, every sacrifice, every suffering whereby the Christian can bring one man from error to truth, from vice to virtue, from bondage into freedom, whereby he can amend, console, or rejoice him, is to him an enlargement and confirmation of the glorious kingdom of Jesus, an actual participation in his great work on earth. To him this life is the porch or vestibule of the future, the preparation to it: and all that he does and operates here, and occasions others to do and effect; all the harm that he here prevents; all the good he here performs; all the seed he here sows; all the blossoms he brings to fruit; are to him causes that infinitely extend in effects. This is to him the seed-time, of which he may expect hereafter to reap a harvest of a thousand-fold. What prospects, my dear brethren! what extensive, what comprehensive views does the virtue of the Christian open before him! He promotes the gracious purposes of God with regard to man, and labours in fellowship with him, his heavenly father, for the benefit of his children: espouses the cause of truth, of integrity, of freedom, the cause of God, according to the utmost of his power: prosecutes the work that Jesus began on earth, and enlarges the borders of his kingdom: assists mankind, his brethren, in their education for heaven; and is useful to them, not only here, not only long after his death, but even in eternity. How much must not such prospects as these ennoble all his virtuous endeavours and actions! Can the imagination frame any loftier, any more extensive purposes than these? Vol. i. p. 264.

Germany, like our own country, was, a short time since, overrun with a class of idle sentimentalists, the great aim of whose writings was to work upon the passions of their readers, and, under the semblance of finer feelings for virtue, to undermine every thing which was noble and excellent in the human character. Against these pests of society, our preacher's discourse on sensibility is an excellent antidote; and we recommend the following sentiments to those of our readers who may at any time have too largely indulged such rêveries, whether from the perusal of sentimental essays or novels.

‘Sensibility is false and blameable, when it is overstrained or excessive; when it is disproportionate to the value of the object; when it is more displayed in trifles than in matters of importance. Many will hear the account of the demolition of a whole city by the horrors of an earthquake, of a fleet dashed to pieces upon rocks, of an army destroyed by fire and sword, with all the indifferency imaginable, who can shed tears over a comparatively insignificant creature of the classes of plants or animals. On numbers, a whole life spent in toilsome, virtuous actions, but performed in silence, without any rumour or ostentation, makes no impression, who will



fall into transports and ecstasy at an act of humanity or beneficence, accidentally perhaps performed by another, but done with great show, and displayed with much ostentation. Many are scarcely moved, or even not at all, by indications of courage, fortitude of mind, resolution, invincible patience and firmness; while, at any thing that shows tenderness or love, even though it be not perfectly innocent, they find reason to be moved in the highest degree. The man of sensibility, in the best and noblest sense of the word, finds indeed matter for his sensibility to work upon in a thousand events and subjects, where others would be absolutely cold, which in their eyes would be insignificant trifles; and it is by no means deserving of reproach if a flower or a little insect moves him, if he observe any expression of exultation or suffering in any sensitive creature, that he be affected by it, and partake in it all with a sentimental heart: but he does not therefore overlook great and important concerns, is not cold towards them, takes still more interest in them, will be still more strongly affected by them, does not fall into the ridiculous, but constantly preserves the dignity of a thinking, rational, and self-possessing man; and this is a proof that his way of thinking and feeling is not artificial sentimentality, but true and generous sensibility.' Vol. i. p. 222.

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'Sensibility is pernicious and criminal, when the young man, or the man of business, is induced by it to think the concerns of his trade or vocation unworthy of him, and which perhaps are not very elegant and important in themselves, or not highly entertaining, and thereupon to despise and neglect them, and to imagine that he degrades himself by paying attention to them, and by doing only such things as thousands of others of less delicate sentiments and of a less elevated mind, can perform as well as he. It is pernicious, when the disciple of wisdom, seduced by this propensity of his heart, neglects the due cultivation of his understanding and reason, and refuses himself to serious and dry studies, though of the highest importance for acquiring the knowledge and the sciences, which are indispensably necessary to his future profession or station in life.

'Sensibility is hurtful and criminal when it leads a man to refrain from associating with others, to deny them the duties of conversation, affability, friendly esteem and affection, because they are not so sentimental as himself: nature having probably formed them of coarser materials, or designed them more for cool and temperate reflexion, more for calm consideration, and disposed them more to action than to sentiment.

'Lastly, sensibility is hurtful and dangerous, when, beguiled by its inspirations and impulses, we dream of a world, and live and float in a world, which has hardly any thing in common with the actual state of things, which exists only in our imagination, or in certain poems and works of fancy; when, beguiled by such representations and images, we look for perfection in others, and expect matters from them, which are either nowhere, or very rarely, to be found; and then trouble and afflict ourselves at this natural defect, and keep

ourselves at a distance from them, as if we missed some essential qualities in them. How many has this prevented from making the most suitable and most advantageous connexions; how many has it misled to pass their days in a state of celibacy! How many have thereby become bad husbands, selfish and austere companions hard to be pleased, and downright misanthropists! No; the wise man sees, accepts, and uses the things of this world as they are, and looks for no angels among mankind, no paradise upon the earth, no virtue free from alloy among frail and sinful creatures, no perfection there, where it is not to be found.' Vol. i. p. 225.

Among the pleasures of virtue, is enumerated, with great justice, one on which a sufficient value is not always placed even by its warmest advocates—

—'the pleasure of a free and cheerful intercourse with his fellow-creatures. And this pleasure too does virtue procure him, if not alone and exclusively, yet in an eminent degree. The virtuous man is not haunted by envy and ill-will, by pride and vanity, by base ends and tricks, by secret reproaches and anxieties; no, wherever he goes he is accompanied by benevolence and love, complacency in whatever is beautiful and good, and delight in all beauty and goodness; he is accompanied by a quiet and contented heart, a good conscience, a modest assurance in the company of his brethren. He comes neither to persons whom he has injured, affronted, estranged, or whom he intends to hurt, or whose displeasure and resentment he has reason to dread; nor to any against whom he nourishes hatred and animosity in his heart, whom he cannot absolutely endure, whom he is not ready to pardon, to succour, to benefit. In his intercourse with others he has no need to fear disgrace or reproaches; has no need to impose on himself any troublesome restraints, carefully to veil and to conceal his thoughts and intentions, nor to court protection and respect, now under one mask and then under another. He can, without any danger, show himself as he is, speak as he thinks, act in conformity with his character; and the consciousness of his integrity, the inward sentiment of his dignity, divests even any unjust censure or undeserved neglect, he may occasionally meet with, of its principal force. The less claim he lays to outward distinctions, to particular marks of honour; the more he prefers reality to appearance, what is personal to what is borrowed, the essential to the accidental: so much the less liable is he to affronts and slights in society; so much more calmly and fully does he enjoy the agreeablenesses of it. The less invidiously and partially he views all the beautiful and good that others have and do: so much the greater satisfaction and so much the surer satisfaction does the sight of it procure him; so much greater is constantly the preponderance of the sensations of pleasure and joy over the sensations of displeasure and of dissatisfaction in his heart. He that has ever enjoyed this pleasure of conversing with his brethren with freedom and vivacity, must confess it to be very great and desirable. And who enjoys it so pure, so complete, as the virtuous man?' Vol. i. p. 278.

Happiness and misery are often contrasted, and but little investi-



gated. A distinction is made by our preacher on these subjects, which deserves to be embraced by all who either feel unhappiness in themselves, or perceive it in others.

‘Wouldst thou, farther, judge rightly of human happiness in particular instances; then take as much care, on the other hand, not to account misfortune and unhappiness as one and the same, or always, from the presence of the one, to conclude on the presence of the other. No, misfortune does not always imply, does not with wise and good persons imply unhappiness; and our heavenly Father, who has ordained us to happiness, has so constituted our nature, and the nature of things, that we may experience much misfortune and yet be happy, and still rejoice in his bounty and in our present and future existence. Let it be, that, by untoward events, I suffer loss in my property, in my outward distinctions, in my health, in my fame, that some sources of my pleasure fail, that my friends and intimates forsake me; let it be, that all this shakes the stem of my happiness, that it weakens and brings it to the ground; is it therefore wholly and for ever destroyed and overthrown? May it not still, like the tree which has been bent by the storm to the earth, lift up its head again, and again be rich in blossoms and fruits, when the tempest is over and gone, and serenity and peace are once more restored? Have I, then, by these adverse events, lost all the agreeable ideas and feelings I formerly had? With these outward goods and advantages, am I then likewise despoiled of my inward spiritual perfection, and the consciousness of what I am, and shall hereafter be? Are, then, my relations with God and the future world, which afforded me so much comfort and repose, dissolved? Do not, then, a thousand other sources of delight and joy still stand open to me? Do not time and reflection and business heal the most painful wounds inflicted by misfortune? Beware, then, of supposing every unfortunate man to be unhappy! Misfortune is transitory: happiness can stand out a thousand attacks of it, ere it can be torn from the spot where it has once taken root. On the same principle, beware too of always supposing trouble and misery to be wherever thou seest tears to flow. They flow as often, and probably oftener, from sources of delight than of pain; and we have commonly mingled sensations, in which the disagreeable is far over-balanced by the pleasant; sensations arising from the most cordial feelings of benevolence and affection to the human race, of virtue and greatness of mind, and not unfrequently are connected with the most enchanting recollections of blessings already enjoyed, and with the most delightful prospects of future bliss.’ Vol. ii. p. 368.

From these extracts, our readers will appreciate the merits of the discourses before us. The translation is in general faithful and correct; but at times it fails in the choice of words, and by no means attains the dignity of the original. They, however, who know the difficulty of translating from the German will make allowance for these slight defects, and thank the translator for presenting to his countrymen the best specimens of German pulpit eloquence.



ART. X.—*General Biography; or, Lives, critical and historical, of the most eminent Persons of all Ages, Countries, Conditions, and Professions, arranged according to alphabetical Order. Composed by John Aikin, M. D. the Rev. Thomas Morgan, Mr. Nicholson, and Others. Vol. III. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Kearsley. 1802.*

IN our introduction to the two former articles on the preceding volumes, we offered some general remarks on the arrangement of biographic sketches and the conduct of biographers. The subject was by no means left exhausted: we hinted, indeed, our intention of prosecuting those remarks as we found opportunity, and even anticipated our next subject, *viz.* ‘the degree of praise or censure which humanity or justice might extort.’ The representations of biographers have been, in general, favourable. The mind is softened, when the object can no longer reply; and we fear to blame, when the author’s particular views or motives admit of no explanation or defence. This we consider as a weakness, but it is an amiable one; and though it destroy the great design of biography, which should be to guard against error by the examples of those who have preceded us, and to incite to excellence by a display of their merits, yet it cannot be severely condemned.

———— ‘*Absentem qui rodit amicum,  
Qui non defendit, alio culpante—  
Hic niger est.*’

It might perhaps be more easy to draw the line than biographers have in general conceived. If faults be exposed without malignity, if virtues be blazoned with pleasure, and intellectual attainments anxiously displayed with slight notices of the irritability which often attends, or the superciliousness which sometimes beclouds, their brilliancy, each life would be a lesson of instruction which would be useful at every æra. This, however, is seldom the case. We read a varnished tale, which is either confined to dates and publications, or gives the truth only in the most favourable colours. In this way Dr. Kippis, a man whose mind was of a softer mould, whose heart was alive to every feeling of humanity and tenderness, balanced every little fault with some praise, and left his readers almost in doubt of his real sentiments respecting the most strongly marked characters. We must not conceal that our present authors have, we think, too closely followed his steps; and even Le Clerc, who has been so often attacked with asperity, and has repelled numerous hostilities with firmness, and sometimes with temper, appears in these pages a tranquil inoffensive recluse. We well know that their limits will not admit of extensive details; and we recollect our own recommendation not to omit even names of no extraordinary merit, concerning which we may sometimes

want information. This will still further confine their excursions; but we think a very small space might contain some characteristic sketches and the bolder lineaments of the portrait.

This volume begins with CL, and concludes with the letter E. We have lately had occasion to remark, that, in the productions of heroes and philosophers, nature does not limit her exertions within any given letters of the alphabet; but, on the whole, the present volume is not greatly interesting. We mean not to say that the lives of many eminent men do not occur; but of many we have already had full accounts; and we do not discover that spirit and genius in our authors, which give novelty to subjects already hackneyed.

Οἱ περ πολλῶν γενεῇ, τοιγδε καὶ ἀνδρῶν, &c.

as in the motto to the present volume, seems to have been the impression made on the minds of the authors by passing heroes and sages—they flourish and wither without leaving a sufficient vestige of their existence.

The life of the late lord Clive is one of the first which particularly attracted our attention. It is chiefly taken from the paper in the *Biographia Britannica*, signed A; but the events are well compacted; and, had we found stronger expressions of indignation in relating *some* of the events, our approbation would have been more unreserved.

Many other lives follow, that are not peculiarly interesting, either in their incidents or the authors' representations. The account of sir Edward Coke is too short, and, in some degree, defective; those of J. Collins the mathematician, and W. Collins the poet, are of a superior cast.—Why was Dr. Cleghorn omitted?—We cannot offer a fairer specimen than the life of the former.

‘COLLINS, JOHN, a mathematician of considerable eminence, was born at Wood Eaton, in Oxfordshire, on the 5th of March, 1624. His father was a non-conformist divine, who gave him such an education as disposed his mind to the study and pursuit of truth. At the age of sixteen he was put apprentice to a bookseller at Oxford; but on the breaking out of the civil wars he quitted that place, and became clerk to Mr. John Marr, one of the clerks of the kitchen to the prince of Wales, who was a good mathematician, and remarkable for having adorned the gardens of Charles I. with some curious dials. Young Collins derived some mathematical instruction from his employer; but as the confusion of the times increased, he quitted his service, and went to sea for seven years, the greatest part of which were employed on board an English merchant ship, which was engaged in the war-service of the Venetians against the Turks. His leisure, in this situation, was employed in the study of the mathematics and merchants' accounts, both which, together with writing, he taught upon his return to England.

‘In the year 1652 he published an “Introduction to Merchants' Accounts.” In 1658 he published in quarto his “Sector on a Qua-

drant, or a Treatise concerning the Description of Four several Quadrants, &c." The following year he published his "Mariner's plain Scale new planned," and his "Treatise of Geometrical Dialling;" and in 1664 he published the "Doctrine of Decimal Arithmetic, Simple Interest, &c."

' After the restoration, Mr. Collins was appointed accountant to the Excise-office, and in 1667 he was chosen a fellow of the Royal Society. In the same year he communicated a paper to the society, demonstrating and explaining the rule, given by De Billy, for finding the number of the Julian period for any year assigned; the cycles of the sun and moon, with the Roman indiction for the year being given. To this he added several neat rules for finding the day of the week, corresponding with any day of the month, for ever; with other useful and necessary calendar rules. In the year 1668 he refused an offer of an employment in Ireland; and in the year 1669 a curious dissertation of his was published in the Transactions, concerning the resolution of equations in numbers, wherein are several hints towards some of the most considerable advances which have been since made in the refined parts of the mathematics, particularly with respect to the doctrine of differences.

' During the chancellorship of Anthony first earl of Shaftesbury, Mr. Collins was nominated by that nobleman in divers references, concerning suits depending in chancery, to assist in stating intricate accounts; and the able performance of this service added so much to his reputation, that he was much employed in similar business by other persons. He was also appointed accountant to the Royal Fishery company. In 1671 a solution, by Mr. Collins, was published in the Philosophical Transactions, of the problem, "The distances of three objects in the same plane, and the angles made at a fourth place by observing in that plane, being given; to find the distances of those objects from the place of observation."

' Mr. Collins had likewise paid great attention to the principles of trade and commerce, and published several tracts relating to objects of this nature. In 1680 he published "A Plea for bringing in Irish Cattle, and keeping out the Fish caught by Foreigners; together with an Address to the Members of Parliament of the Counties of Cornwall and Devon, about the advancement of Tin, Fishery, and divers Manufactures." In 1682 he published, in quarto, "A Discourse of Salt and Fishery;" in which he describes the methods of making salt, the criterions of its good quality, the catching and curing of fish, the salting of flesh, cookery of fish and flesh, extraordinary experiments for preserving food, the hardships of the salt workers, with proposals for their relief, and the advancement of the fishery, the woollen, tin, and divers other manufactures.

' Soon after the publication of this treatise, after the act at Oxford, July the 10th, 1682, he rode from thence to Malmesbury in Wiltshire, in order to view the ground to be cut for a river between the Isis and Avon. During this excursion he drank cyder while he was hot, which produced an asthma and consumption. He died at his lodging on Garlic-hill, London, November the 10th, 1683.

' In the Philosophical Transactions for May, 1684, a letter written by Mr. Collins to Dr. John Wallis was published; containing his



thoughts about some defects in algebra, wherein he proposes the genuine method of describing the loci of equations, and of determining the limits and number of their roots, with various other matters. His "Arithmetic in whole Numbers and Fractions, &c." did not appear till the year 1688.

Besides his own productions, Mr. Collins was a great promoter of many other valuable publications of his time. To him, it is said, the world is indebted for the publication of Dr. Barrow's optical and geometrical lectures; his edition of the work of Archimedes, and of Apollonius's Conics; Branker's translation of Rhonius's Algebra; with Dr. Pell's additions; Kersey's Algebra, Dr. Wallis's History of Algebra, and many other excellent works, which are said to have been procured by his solicitations. It was not till five-and-twenty years after Mr. Collins's death that his papers were all delivered into the hands of the learned Mr. William Jones, F.R.S.; among which were found manuscripts of Mr. Briggs, Mr. Oughtred, Dr. Pell, Dr. Scarborough, Dr. Barrow, and Mr. Isaac Newton; with a multitude of letters received from, and copies of letters sent to, many learned persons, particularly Dr. Pell, Dr. Wallis, Dr. Barrow, Mr. Newton, Mr. James Gregory, Mr. Flamstead, Mr. Thomas Baker, Mr. Branker, Dr. Edward Bernard, M. Slusius, M. Leibnitz, M. Tschin-naus, father Bertet, and others. From these papers it appeared that Mr. Collins was so solicitous in his search after useful truths, so assiduous in his inquiries, and so communicative in his disposition, that he held a constant correspondence, for many years, with all the eminent mathematicians of his time; and spared neither pains nor expence to promote real science. Many of the late discoveries in natural knowledge are considered as indebted to him for their progress: for, while he excited some to publish their useful inventions, he employed others to improve them. In some cases he was peculiarly useful, by shewing the defects in particular branches of science, or the difficulties attending the inquiry; and at other times setting forth the advantages, and giving vigour to the spirit of improvement. He was considered as a kind of register of all the new improvements in mathematics, the magazine to which the curious had frequent recourse, so that he was sometimes styled the English Mersennus. His great merit does not appear to have been sufficiently rewarded by those who had the means of patronising him. It was chiefly from the papers of Mr. Collins that the claim of sir Isaac Newton to the invention of fluxions was established in the "*Commercium Epistolicum D. Johannis Collins, et aliorum, de Analysi promota, Jussu Regiæ Societatis in lucem editum*," London, 1712, 4to. a work which was made out chiefly from his letters.' p. 65.

The life of Colman is coldly written; and we should have expected that this elegant and classical genius would have more freely commanded the panegyric of Dr. Aikin. In that of Columbus, we greatly regret that no notice is taken of the information supposed to have been received of another continent from the narratives or charts of preceding navigators. At this period, after having so much engaged attention, it should not, we think, have been omitted. Of Collinson and Commerson, the

accounts, though short, are interesting and satisfactory. The life of Dr. Compton seems also to be written with spirit and intelligence, probably by Mr. Morgan, as the paper is signed M. The life of Condorcet is likewise executed with ability, though perhaps in a too favourable strain, and without a proper discrimination of his talents. A part of it we shall select.

‘ When the trial of the king came under consideration, Condorcet was one of those who thought he could not legally be brought to judgement; his conduct, however, with respect to the sentence, was equivocal, and betrayed that timidity and irresolution which characterised his public life. The opinion of Mad. Roland, respecting his moral constitution, is perhaps as impartial as any that can be produced. “The genius of Condorcet,” says she, “is equal to the comprehension of the greatest truths; but he has no other characteristic besides fear. It may be said of his understanding, combined with his person, that it is a fine essence absorbed in cotton. The timidity which forms the basis of his character, and which he displays even in company, on his countenance and in his attitudes, does not result from his frame alone, but seems to be inherent in his soul, and his talents furnish him with no means of subduing it. Thus, after having deduced a principle or demonstrated a fact in the assembly, he would give a vote decidedly opposite, overawed by the thunder of the tribunes, armed with insults, and lavish of menaces. The properest place for him was the secretaryship of the academy. Such men should be employed to write, but never permitted to act.” After the king’s death he was employed by the Girondists to frame a new constitution. His plan for this purpose was presented to the convention, and approved; but it met with little concurrence from the nation at large; and has been, perhaps not unjustly, denominated “a mass of metaphysical absurdities.” During the contest between the Girondists and the Mountain, he kept aloof, both through timidity and dissatisfaction with the state of affairs. He was not included among those victims who fell with their leader Brissot; but, afterwards, having written against the proceedings of the triumphant party, he incurred the unforgiving animosity of the tyrant Robespierre, and a decree of accusation was issued against him in July, 1793. He made his escape from the arrest, and lay concealed in Paris for nine months. At length, the apprehension of a domiciliary visit obliged him to quit his retreat; and passing undiscovered through the barriers, he went to the house of a friend on the plain of Mont-Rouge. Unfortunately this person was then in Paris, and Condorcet was obliged to pass two nights in the fields exposed to cold and hunger. On the third day he had an interview with his friend, who could not then venture to take him to his house, so that he was still forced to wander in the fields. Exhausted at length by fatigue and want of food, he went to a public-house, and calling for an omelette, devoured it with great eagerness. His squalid appearance and voracity excited suspicions in a municipal officer who chanced to be present, and who put some interrogatories to him. From the hesitation of his answers, it was thought proper to apprehend him. He was confined in a dungeon in order to be sent to Paris next day, but in the morning he was



found dead. As it is known that he always carried a dose of poison about him, it cannot be doubted that he put an end to his life by its means. In this wretched manner was the career of a man, who had sustained a brilliant part on the stage of life, terminated on March 28th, 1794. He was a man of polished manners, and as amiable in society as one could be who seems to have had the radical defect of *wanting a heart*. He lived on affectionate terms with his wife, by whom he left one daughter. Not long after his death appeared his "Sketch of a Historical Draught of the Progress of the Human Mind," a work of method and research; in which, considering man as he has been, as he is, and as he may be, he forcibly inculcates his favourite idea of the perfectibility of the human species, and of its actual advance towards perfection. Though some of his notions appear chimerical, yet the work is upon the whole powerfully written; and when it is known that he composed it while in circumstances of distress and danger, and that the conviction of a progress of his fellow-creatures towards improvement in virtue and happiness was his consolation under present sufferings and discouragements, some credit may be given him for more fortitude and right feeling than his general character would perhaps indicate. Besides the works already mentioned, he published "Letters to Frederic King of Prussia," with whom, as likewise with the imperial Catharine, he corresponded. He left behind him in manuscript a "Treatise on Calculation," and an "Elementary Treatise on Arithmetic." P. 98.

The Conrads and the Constantines fill many pages with facts and circumstances often uninteresting, and generally well known; but such must occur in works of the present kind, though we think that the even tenor to which the authors have confined their narratives, might have been easily relieved in several parts. The life of captain Cook is detailed with great clearness and precision; though, as in that of Columbus, from omitting to describe the state of geographic knowledge at the period of his first voyage, the value of his discoveries cannot be appreciated. This fault is avoided in the life of Copernicus, which is a valuable abstract of what had been before published at greater length. That of Cortez is also ably written; but, after the very excellent accounts of other authors, mediocrity would have been unpardonable.

We could have wished for a more ample tribute to the memory of Cotes, and some account of his very important labours. The life of Cowley, on the contrary, is written with a minuteness of discrimination highly creditable to the author, but somewhat disproportioned when science is so slenderly noticed. The life of Cowper also displays much taste and judicious criticism. We shall select a part of it, as a specimen of the author's talents in this department.

'This' (the second volume of his poems) 'chiefly consists of a poem in six books, entitled "The Task," which name it derived from the



injunction of a lady upon him to write a piece in blank verse, for the subject of which she gave him *the sofa*. It sets out, indeed, with some sportive discussion of this topic, but it soon falls into a serious strain of rural description, intermixed with moral sentiments and portraitures, which, under different titles, is preserved through the six books, with no perceptible method, but freely ranging from thought to thought, from the image to its improvement, as unshackled fancy suggests. It is difficult to determine which is the most conspicuous excellence of this charming production. In the description of natural objects, it unites the most minute accuracy with striking elegance and picturesque beauty. Since Thompson, Cowper is the poet who has added most to the stock of natural imagery; and his paintings are more exact than those of that writer, though generally less grand and comprehensive. His manner, indeed, has led some of his imitators into a kind of Dutch style of painting, which has wasted the powers of description upon objects not worth the pains; but Cowper himself is generally preserved by good taste from this degradation of his art. The pious and moral reflections of the "Task," touch the heart with irresistible force; and its delineations of character are life itself. The personifications, and allegorical figures interspersed, display high powers of fancy; and the picture of Winter riding on his sledgy car, may vie in sublimity with any effort of poetical invention. The permanent colour of the diction is ease and force, sometimes deviating into negligence, but more free than perhaps any other blank verse from the stiffness and tumidity which so commonly disfigure this mode of writing. Although the peculiar religious system of the author is sufficiently discernible in the Task, it however appears with less gloom and austerity than in his former pieces. There is added to this volume "Tirocinium, or a Review of Schools," a piece of great strength, and replete with striking observation, whatever be thought of the decisive sentence it pronounces against the public education of this country. The merry story of "John Gilpin" seems to show (as indeed do many passages in his other works), that a strong perception of the ludicrous naturally balanced in his disposition the gloomy propensity which circumstances rendered finally predominant.

'For the purpose of losing in employment those distressing ideas, which were ever apt to recur, he undertook the real *task* of translating into blank verse the whole of Homer's Iliad and Odyssey. This work possesses much merit of execution, and is certainly a much more exact representation of the ancient bard than Pope's ornamental version; but though the epic dignity is well supported in those passages which are intrinsically poetical, yet where the simplicity of the matter in the original is elevated into poetry solely by the force of sonorous versification, the poverty of English blank verse has scarcely been able to prevent it from sinking into mere prose. On the whole, this translation has probably been more praised than read; to the author, however, it was a most valuable source of innocent amusement, and its completion is mentioned by him with the regret felt on parting with a beloved companion.' P. 192.

The life of Cromwell we think an excellent one: the arrange-

ment is clear, the parts well connected, and the spirit which pervaded the whole of his eventful life is brought forward early, and kept constantly in view. The authors think, with justice, that there was much real fanaticism in his character. A parallel between Cromwell and Bonaparte might be made an interesting, probably an instructive work. The life of Dr. Cullen is a weak article, with little philosophic or medical discrimination. If the 'critic' live, it shall at some period be attempted more successfully. Dr. Cumming, mentioned with so much respect in Hutchins's 'History of Dorsetshire,' deserved, we think, some commemoration.

The letter D affords several new and interesting lives. We noticed, very early, that of Dalin, the Swedish poet and historian; and of Dante, the Italian poet. The account of Daubenton is very short, and his merits are very cursorily hurried over, which deserved an ample panegyric, in as many pages as his biographers have allotted lines. Indeed the proportionate attention to authors of different classes and talents requires much more consideration than seems to have been bestowed in the present volume. In the life of David, compiled chiefly from the sacred writings, our authors seem not to be aware of the extent of his conquests to the East, and the source of his riches. By the former, he appears to have attained possession of the navigation of the Persian Gulf, of the Indian commerce, and to have secured the assistance of the Phœnician seamen. The eastern trade, brought in this way to Palestine and the isthmus of Suez through the desert, enriched the barren country of Judæa, and enabled David, even in his life-time, to collect the richest materials for building the temple. Solomon only followed the plan which David seems to have begun. These circumstances are clear, from an attentive perusal of the Scriptures, aided by the collections of Eusebius from historians whose works are lost.

Of Mr. Day, a humane and respectable author, the life is somewhat too favourable. Of the advocates of Negro emancipation, we have often had occasion to offer our ideas; and, whatever be the opinions respecting the origin of the American war, no one can now be ignorant that many of the misfortunes of the mother country were owing to the party which tied her hands.

Defoe, whose unacknowledged pieces have procured him lasting fame, while those to which he prefixed his name are forgotten or despised, is noticed perhaps too shortly. His talents, which rendered his irony so dry that it was mistaken for truth, and fiction so natural that he was supposed to record facts only, might have led to a more ample display of criticism; and the life of Gustavus Adolphus, which Harte mistook for true history, should not have been omitted. It is singular, that, in one



of his fabricated books of voyages, he has described with apparent fidelity the manners of the Society Islanders, though he has purposely obscured their situation. He spoke perhaps at random, and confused his narrative that he might not be convicted of error; or had heard the reports of accidental visitors, which he knew not how to credit or reject.

The life of Descartes is a masterly performance, and does great credit to Mr. Nicholson, by whom it appears to have been communicated. That of Dessault is, in a great measure, new, and well written. The biographic sketch of Dr. Dimsdale is also new, though the principal facts were too generally known to render it highly interesting. The lives of Dr. Doddridge, Mr. Dodsley, Mr. Dodson, Dr. Dodwell, Dr. Donne, Mr. Dryden, and sir Francis Drake, merit, on the whole, our commendation. It is, however, singular, that Dodwell should have furnished an Introductory Dissertation to Hudson's Greek Geographers, in which he endeavours to subvert their authenticity, and that Hudson should warmly express his obligations for the communication. Mr. Walpole's Memoirs would have assisted the authors in giving a more favourable view of cardinal Dubois than they have gleaned from St. Simon; and the merits of Dupleix in India certainly deserved a more ample detail and warmer commendations.

The letter E affords some lives of interest and value. We observed, with satisfaction, that of Edwards the naturalist, and his namesake, by whose critical observations we have been so much entertained and instructed. The life of queen Elizabeth is chiefly taken from Hume; and the view is consequently a favourable one, though later historians have greatly differed from him. Mr. Emerson's life is, in some degree, new; and that of Dr. Enfield written with apparent marks of regard and friendship. Ercilla, the poet, and Erxleben, the naturalist, are, we believe, now, for the first time, noticed in the biographic works of this country; but of the venerable Evelyn the account is not sufficiently particular and discriminated. Of Euler, and Eward the Danish poet, the biographic sketches are very satisfactory.

We are sorry, however, to add, that, in a work entitled a *General Biographical Dictionary*, there should be so many omissions. The authors indeed profess to give an account of the 'most eminent persons' only; but, when we survey their list, they appear to aim at universality; for the names of many inconsiderable persons are found in every sheet. We mean not to blame them on this account, because we have directed their attention to these less important objects, to supply information on every occasion. When we reflect, nevertheless, on those who are retained, we are surprised at the omission of many who had superior claims to the authors' attention. We did not, for a



time, sufficiently attend to these defects; but, when we reflected on the scanty number of articles under the letters D and E, we began to tax our own recollection, and to supply, on a second examination of these pages, what our memory would afford. We are sorry to find the list on the margin so numerous; but must suggest to the authors, that notice should perhaps have been taken of the following men, of, at least, *some* eminence in their different departments, premising that in this list we notice but few of the many painters and engravers that have occurred to our recollection, and that many, less deserving attention, are also omitted. We find no account of Dr. Dalton; of general Dalziel; of the French philosopher Darci, whose experiments on light are truly valuable; of Des Barreaux, the lord Rochester of France; of Des Hais, the painter; De Witt, the Dutch burgomaster; of the facetious Dogget; of sir William Draper; of Edward Drinker, who was born in a cabin, where Philadelphia now stands; of Stephen Duck, the thresher and poet, who, by the exchange of his trade, was said to have 'lessened his labour' and 'doubled his profits\*'; of Richard Duke, the dramatist; of Daniel Duncan, a physician of eminence; William Dunlop; Mr. William Benson Earle; of Dr. Egerton, bishop of Durham; of sir John Elliott; John Ellis, the learned money-scrivener, celebrated by Johnson and Boswell; of the parsimonious Elwes; the equivocal D'Eon; of several of the Erskines, particularly lord Alva; of Espagnolet, the painter; Essex, the architect; of the facetious Dick Escourt; Mad. D'Estrées, the fair Gabrielle, the favourite mistress of Henry IV; of Eudocia, the wife of Peter I, czar of Russia; of John Evelyn, the son of the celebrated Evelyn; of Eupolis; of Eusden, the poet laureat; of Evremond; and Van Eyck. Some of these, particularly *De Witt* and *St. Evremond*, may find their niches in a future volume; and perhaps the proper station of the former is under the letter W. The others, however, should not have been wholly omitted.

The extent of our article prevents us from engaging in the inquiry respecting the proportion of attention due to each author. We may pursue it on another occasion, when we return to this work on the publication of the fourth volume,

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\* \* Thrice happy Duck, employ'd in threshing stubble,  
Thy labours lessen'd, and thy profits double.'

SWIFT.

ART. XI.—*The Metrical Miscellany: consisting chiefly of Poems hitherto unpublished. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.*

'THE rich and cultur'd flow'r to find,  
Pleas'd must we range the garden's maze,  
Where Splendor reigns, with Taste combin'd,  
And Art her fairy wand displays.

\* Yet oft near tangled brake, or stream,  
By Nature's careless bounty thrown,  
A flow'er we mark, that *sure* we deem  
Is *all* too fair to blush unknown.

\* Wild and unshelter'd as it stands,  
Low drooping thus in modest guise,  
We raise its stem with ready hands,  
Its beauties catch with willing eyes.

\* Such artless sweets, where'er descried,  
The Muse has sought with patient care  
'Mid secret wilds, and meads untried,  
A various chaplet to prepare.

\* And doubly blest, if these can charm  
A heart to gentle friendship prone,  
Who feels with int'rest prompt and warm  
The praise of others—as its own.' P. I.

These stanzas are the editor's only preface. Compilations like the present were frequent in the early ages of our poetry. England's Helicon, and the Paradise of Dainty Devices, preserved the sweetest poems of their day. Perhaps Dryden brought them into disgrace, when, to fill his volumes, he inserted whatever nonsense and ribaldry the gentlemen of king Charles's court were pleased to contribute. Many years have elapsed since Mendez published his supplementary volume, the last respectable publication of the kind.

The work before us contains almost exclusively the productions of living persons. Cumberland, Darwin, and Roscoe, are among the contributors. The other names are more known in the fashionable or political, than in the literary circle—Erskine, W. Spencer, lord Palmerston, Fitzpatrick, the duchess of Devonshire. Some pieces have Mr. Fox's name affixed, all of which, except the following, are probably school-boy productions.

\* *To Mrs. A——, on the Writer's Birth-day.*

\* Of years I have now half a century past,  
Yet not one of the fifty so blest as the last :  
How it happens my troubles thus daily should cease,  
And my happiness still with my years should increase,

This defiance to Nature's more general laws,  
You alone can explain, who alone are the cause.' P. 161.

The 'Nursing of Love' should have been acknowledged as an imitation from the French.

*'The Nursing of Love.'*

- 'Lap'd on Cythera's golden sands  
When first True Love was born on earth,  
Long was the doubt what fost'ring hands  
Should tend and rear the glorious birth.
- 'First Hebe claimed the sweet employ,  
Her cup, her thornless flowers, she said,  
Would feed him best with health and joy,  
And cradle best his cherub head.
- 'But anxious Venus justly fear'd  
The tricks and changeful mind of youth;  
Too mild the seraph Peace appear'd,  
Too stern, too cold, the matron Truth;
- 'Next Fancy claim'd him for her own,  
But Prudence disallow'd her right,  
She deem'd her Iris pinions shone  
Too dazzling for his infant sight.
- 'To Hope awhile the charge was given,  
And well with Hope the cherub throve,  
Till Innocence came down from Heaven  
Sole guardian, friend, and nurse of Love!
- 'Pleasure grew mad with envious spite  
When *all* prefer'd to *her* she found,  
She vow'd full vengeance for the slight,  
And soon success her purpose crown'd.
- 'The traitor watch'd a sultry hour,  
When pillow'd on her blush-rose bed  
Tired Innocence to slumber's pow'r  
One moment bow'd her virgin head;
- 'Then Pleasure on the thoughtless child  
Her toys and sugar'd poisons prest,  
Drunk with new joy, he heav'd, he smil'd,  
Reel'd—sunk—and died upon her breast!" P. 111.

The original is so much more beautiful, that we transcribe it.

'Quand l'Amour nacquit a Cythère,  
On intrigua dans le pais;  
Venus dit, "Je suis bonne mère,  
C'est moi qui nourrirai mon fils."



‘ Mais l’Amour, malgré son jeune âge,  
Trop attentif à tant d’appas,  
Préféroit le vase au breuvage;  
Et l’enfant ne profitoit pas.

‘ Ne faut pas pourtant qu’il pâtisse :  
(Dit Venus parlant a sa cour)  
Que la plus sage le nourrisse :  
Songez toutes que c’est l’Amour.”

‘ Alors la Candeur, la Tendresse,  
La Gaieté vinrent s’offrir ;  
Et même la Delicatesse :  
Nulle n’avoit de quoi le nourrir.

‘ On penchoit pour la Complaisance :  
Mais l’enfant eût été gâté.  
On avoit trop d’expérience  
Pour songer a la Volupté.

‘ Enfin de ce choix d’importance  
Cette cour ne décida rien :  
Quelqu’ un proposa l’Espérance ;  
Et l’enfant s’en trouva fort bien.

‘ On prétend que la Jouissance,  
Qui croyoit devoir le nourrir,  
Jalouse de la préférence,  
Guettoit l’enfant pour s’en saisir.

‘ Prenant les traits de l’Innocence,  
Pour berceuse elle vint s’offrir ;  
Et la trop crédule Espérance  
Eut le malheur d’y consentir.

‘ Un jour avint que l’Espérance,  
Voulant se livrer au sommeil,  
Remit a la fausse Innocence  
L’enfant jusques à son réveil.

‘ Alors la trompeuse Déesse  
Donna bonbons à pleines mains :  
L’enfant d’abord fut dans l’ivresse,  
Et mourut bientôt sur son sein.”

A spirited and accurate translation of this piece is inserted in Mr. Wrangham’s poems.

Mr. Spenser’s ‘Prologue to the Grave’ contains more true poetry than is usually found in such compositions.

‘ In elder times, some lively sparks, ’tis said,  
Have paid familiar visits to the dead,  
By Pluto well receiv’d politely all  
Conjured him never to return their call.

But he assured them, on some future day,  
He would not, could not, fail to pass their way :  
With various views they went, one anxious heir  
Went—with strong hopes to find his father there ;  
One sought another's wife, this hist'ry shews ;  
One sought his own—that's poetry, God knows !  
But now this friendly intercourse is o'er,  
None uninvited drive to Pluto's door ;  
Though soon or late His Grimness visits all,  
None will his kind civility forestall.  
For ev'n when bidden in the warmest way,  
All, if they can, put off th' appointed day.  
E'en some, self-ask'd, when near his door, recede,  
And recollected pre-engagements plead.  
Judge then, what wonder seiz'd the spectre state,  
When with a light hand tapping at the gate,  
The Comic Muse, a least expected guest,  
At the dark realms of Death for entrance prest !  
Smiling she prest, that smile had still prevail'd  
If hero's sword, and minstrel's lyre had fail'd,  
Hearts more than Death inexorably hard,  
E'en miser's hearts by worse than dæmons barr'd,  
Won by that angel smile, cou'd ne'er refuse  
Entrance and welcome to the Comic Muse !

‘ Why all unlicens'd thus th' intruder came  
To beat in cypress groves for sprightly game ?  
Why trip'd her light sock o'er the church-way sod  
Long by her buskin'd sister only trod ?  
How to the grisly king she fearless sped,  
And bound her mask upon his goblin head ?  
How all those darts which mark his tyrant rule  
She turns to shafts of harmless ridicule ?  
This all as yet in mystic silence seal'd  
Within yon abbey's vaults shall be reveal'd,  
Attend awhile, we need not patience crave,  
Few are in haste to learn the secrets of the Grave.’ p. 164.

The following may be quoted as one of the best pieces in the collection :—

‘ *The Maid with Bosom Cold.*

‘ Of me they cry, I'm often told—  
“ See there the maid with bosom cold !  
Indifference o'er her heart presides,  
And love and lovers she derides ;  
Their idle darts, unmeaning chains,  
Fantastic whims and silly pains !  
In pride secure, in reason bold,  
See there the maid with bosom cold.”

‘ Ah ! ever be they thus deceived !  
Still be my bosom cold believed,

And never may enquiring eyes  
Pierce thro' unhappy Love's disguise :  
Yet could they all my bosom share,  
And see each painful tumult there,  
Ah ! never should I then be told  
That I'm the maid with bosom cold.

' A fate severe my suffering mind  
To endless struggles has consign'd.  
I feel a flame I must not own,  
I love, yet every hope is flown ;  
Too strong to let my passion sway,  
Too weak to teach it to obey,  
I agonize, and then am told  
That I'm the maid with bosom cold.

' The joy o'er all my looks exprest  
Conceals a bosom ill at rest ;  
To balls and routes I haste away,  
But only imitate the gay :  
I jest at Love and mock his pow'r,  
Yet feel his triumph every hour ;  
And lost to ev'ry bliss—am told  
That I'm the maid with bosom cold.

' Unable from myself to fly,  
I catch each word, I read each eye ;  
Antonio comes—I die with fear  
Lest others mark my falt'ring air ;  
My eye perhaps too fondly gazed,  
My tongue too much—too little praised ;  
Suspicion's trembling slave—I'm told  
That I'm the maid with bosom cold.

' With anxious toil, with ceaseless care,  
Content and careless I appear ;  
All mirth beneath another's eye,  
Alone I heave the helpless sigh,  
Hang musing o'er his image dear,  
Feel on my cheek th' unbidden tear,  
And think, ah ! why should I be told  
That I'm the maid with bosom cold ?

' The flower may wave its foliage gay,  
And flaunt it to the garish day,  
Unseen the while a canker's pow'r  
May haste its honours to devour ;  
And thus, while vainly round me play  
Youth's zephyr breath, and Pleasure's ray,  
My fate unknown, my tale untold,  
Thus sinks the maid with bosom cold.' p. 107.

One other poem we must extract, because it is wild and fanciful in imagery, and sweet in language, and because it would



be unjust to youthful genius to suppress it. It is the early production of a son of Mr. Roscoe. Well may the editor say—*Simili frondescit virga metallo.*

*To a Lily flowering by Moonlight.*

‘ Oh ! why, thou lily pale,  
Lov’st thou to blossom in the wan moonlight,  
And shed thy rich perfume upon the night?  
When all thy sisterhood,  
In silken cowl and hood,  
Screen their soft faces from the sickly gale?  
Fair horned Cynthia wooes thy modest flower,  
And with her beaming lips  
Thy kisses cold she sips,  
For thou art aye her only paramour;  
What time she nightly quits her starry bow’r,  
Trick’d in celestial light,  
And silver crescent bright,  
Oh! ask thy vestal queen  
If she will thee advise,  
Where in the blessed skies  
That maiden may be seen,  
Who hung like thee her pale head thro’ the day,  
Love-sick and pining for the evening ray;  
And liv’d a virgin chaste, amid’ the folly  
Of this bad world, and died of melancholy?  
Oh tell me where she dwells!  
So on thy mournful bells,  
Shall Dian nightly fling  
Her tender sighs to give thee fresh perfume,  
Her pale night-lustre to enhance thy bloom,  
And find thee tears to feed thy sorrowing.’ P. 113.

On the whole, we consider this volume as a valuable miscellany.

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ART. XII.—*Travels through Sweden, Finland, and Lapland, to the North Cape.* By *Joseph Acerbi.* (Continued from p. 148 of our present Volume.)

AS we have reprehended the geographical errors or defects of the maps designed to illustrate these travels, we must endeavour to supply those deficiencies in them, which so much influence M. Acerbi’s description. The southern point of Norway, which prevents the German Ocean from a northern direction, and turns it in a sinuous course till it form the Baltic, is a mountainous promontory termed the Naze or Nose. thence a chain of mountains runs parallel to the sea, or

rather the sea encroaches on the land, till it is checked by this mountainous ridge. In about  $67^{\circ}$  of north latitude, it assumes the appellation of the Kolen Mountains; and, in a direction very nearly north-east, passes to the south of the North Cape, terminating in the Northern Sea on the north-east. From the Kolen Mountains, the sea has gained on the land, creating different bays, lakes, and islands, according to the height of the hills opposed to it. One of these, at the extreme point of land on the north, forms what is called the North Cape. About the sixty-eighth degree of north latitude, the mountains, which occasionally trend to the east and north, assume a bolder aspect, and, at some distance from Tornea, constitute a continued highland, whence various rivers arise which fall to the south-east into the Gulf of Bothnia. From this chain, the mountains of Kemi soon form a conspicuous ridge: trending to the east, and then to the south in a circuitous direction, they encircle the Gulf of Bothnia, and terminate in the neighbourhood of Abo. Some of the higher pics are conspicuous in the isles of Aland; and the ridge seems to cross the Gulf in about  $60^{\circ}$  north, rising again in the neighbourhood of Upland, and uniting with the original chain first described in about the sixty-second degree.

This account is by no means digressive, since it leads to the explanation of our author's route, and some of the particular circumstances which attended his progress. M. Acerbi was now approaching the higher regions we have described between the north-eastern chain and the Kemi Mountains on the east, which, arising at right angles from the former, soon assume a southerly direction. From Kengis he proceeds to Kollare and Muonionisca, in opposition to currents and a rapid cataract.

‘ The fortitude and perseverance with which those people bore this long and extraordinary labour, shew the astonishing power of habit. Where the river was too strong and violent for our boats, which owing to the weight they carried drew too much water, to make good their passage, we were forced to disembark and haul our empty boats along the river. The Finlanders who were employed in dragging the boat, kept on the bank, leaping from stone to stone, and sometimes went up to the middle in water to disengage the rope from the rocks, where it had become entangled. Sometimes the boats themselves were obstructed in their passage by the rocks, in which case one of the men threw himself into the water, swam up to them, and set them afloat again. At last we came to a place where the extreme force of the cataract, the depth of the water, and the obstructions from the rocks, rendered it to appearance altogether impossible to continue our progress. Our brave Simon was the only person who thought every thing possible. The rest seemed disposed to find fault with his daring projects, which they never lessened; but, on the contrary, magnified through their fears. But he was always the first to set an example of the most unwearied patience and activity; he constantly charged himself with the execution of



the most arduous and laborious part of the undertaking, and never proposed a thing in which he did not reserve for himself the most difficult and hazardous offices it imposed: in short, no perils could daunt his spirit, no toils set bounds to his exertions. He hauled the boat, he disengaged it when it stuck fast; he was the first to leap into the water whenever occasion required, and seemed to do every thing himself alone.

‘While our Finlanders were displaying the most heroic perseverance on the river and on its banks, the utmost we could do was to keep up with them in the adjacent wood. It was not always possible to follow them close to the river, as we were not, like them, able to jump from one rock to another. The current too sometimes produced a giddiness in the head, and we were unwilling to wet our legs by wading through the water. Another species of fatigue still awaited us in the woods: we sunk here and there so deep in the moss, that we thought we should be immersed in it up to our necks. We sometimes met with places so deep and boggy, that it was highly dangerous to set a foot upon them. The branches everywhere intercepted our passage, while the veils we wore on our faces, to protect them from the stings of insects, caught hold of the branches, and were in danger of being torn in pieces by every twig. Tall fir and pine-trees, which the wind had levelled with the ground, and which time had almost converted into dust, lay scattered in the woods. We wished to escape the embarrassment of the moss, by stepping along the trees that lay in our way; but we found their substance generally so rotten and decayed, that now and then they suddenly gave way under our feet, and we could with difficulty save ourselves from falling.’ Vol. ii. p. 6.

The cataract of Muonio-koski is a singular spectacle; but of this kind we meet with several others, and more striking still, in our further progress. In these regions, the country is thinly inhabited; and the colonists, shut out from almost any communication with their neighbours, enjoy an extensive domain, with none of the advantages of society. Two or three families, and occasionally a single one, who would migrate from their own dwellings, may fix without opposition in Lapland. It must, however, be at six miles’ distance from any other district, and they then can claim a circle, whose radius is six miles, with all the advantages of meadows, fisheries, &c. which in this country are of the utmost value. The present inhabitants are emigrants from Finland, though generally styled Laplanders.

‘The food of these people in summer consists of fish dried in the sun. When the fishery happens to be very productive, they sell the surplus, or give it in exchange for meal, salt, or iron, which they want for domestic purposes. They like better to receive meal in exchange for their fish, than to apply themselves to the labour of the soil. Among them agriculture is still in its primitive state. They make no use of the plough, but work the ground by the force of their arms, though the parson has been at much pains, but without success, to teach



them the advantage of that implement. He used himself to yoke his cow to the plough, and cultivate a small field of his own, in order to set an example to others. As soon as the snow has begun to fall in autumn, they carefully observe the traces of the bear, and go out to attack him in parties of three or four persons. About the middle of August, the season when the birds cast their feathers, they have considerable success in the chase of wild ducks and other aquatics, which they knock down with the oar, these animals being then unable to escape from them by the assistance of their wings.

'When they have cut down their hay and sufficiently dried it, they put it upon a sort of frame, raised high above the ground, on four posts, so as not only to secure it from being humid by the overflowing of the river, but also from being carried away by the force of the current. Some of them possess rein-deer, which in summer they intrust to the care of a Laplander, who conducts them into the vallies among the mountains, and watches and attends them in their pasture.

'The people are extremely sober, they never drink spirituous liquors, except on marriage days, when they indulge, but not to excess, in mirth and gaiety. The ceremony of marriage is followed by a dinner in their style, and afterwards by a dance, but without music of any kind, except their cries and the snapping of their fingers. They have no relish for beer; and when we prevailed upon them to taste our wine, they made wry faces and took it for physic. The parson assured us in the most pathetic accents, that there was not a single glass of brandy to be had in the whole two hundred square miles of his parish; he told us likewise, that drunkenness is regarded by the people as the most scandalous vice to which a man can be subject: and we could not help suspecting that this was one of the causes of his being so little revered and esteemed by his flock.

'Disease and sickness are extremely rare among these people; there have been instances of peasants in this parish, who have lived to the age of one hundred and ten years: and the only disorder that proves fatal to the inhabitants, is a kind of inflammatory fever.'

Vol. ii. p. 20.

From Muonionisca our travelers make an excursion to the Kemi Mountains on the east, with a design of reaching the highest point, dignified by the appellation of Mount Pallas. A river, which descends from this chain, facilitated their access; but impenetrable morasses prevented their reaching the chief object of their curiosity, which, however, the engraver has omitted in the map, as well as the two great chains of mountains described. On the southern side of these hills, the heat was extreme. Celsius's thermometer was from  $29^{\circ}$  at noon, to  $19^{\circ}$  at night, equal to the sixty-sixth and eighty-fourth degrees of Fahrenheit.

Pallajoveniö is the first district in Lapland, if we speak with strict geographical accuracy; but Maupertuis led the way in confounding West Bothnia with Lapland. At Lappajervi, our

author first meets with extensive plains of the rein-deer moss; and we shall transcribe his account of its appearance.

‘The moss on which the rein-deer feeds covers the whole ground, which is flat, and only skirted by hills at some distance; but these hills also are clothed with this moss. The colour of the moss is a pale yellow, which, when dry, changes to white: the regularity of its shape, and the uniform manner in which the surface of the ground is decked with it, appears very singular and striking: it has the semblance of a beautiful carpet. These plants grow in a shape nearly octagonal, and approaching to a circle; and as they closely join each other, they form a kind of mosaic work, or embroidery. The white appearance of the country, which thence arises, may for a moment make you imagine that the ground is covered with snow; but the idea of a winter scene is done away by the view of little thickets in full green, which you perceive scattered here and there, and still more by the presence of the sun and the warmth of his rays. As this moss is very dry, nothing can possibly be more pleasant to walk upon, nor can there be any thing softer to serve as a bed. Its cleanness and whiteness is tempting to the sight, and when we had put up our tent, we found ourselves in every respect very comfortably lodged. I had many times before met with this moss, but in no place had I found it so rich. It was the only produce here, which nature seemed to favour and support: no other herb was growing near it, nor any other vegetable on the spot, except a few birch-trees, with their underwood, and some firs, dispersed on the hill by the river side. All these seemed to vegetate with difficulty, as if deprived of their nourishment by the moss, and appeared withering and stunted. Some trees, indeed, which grow very near the water, had the appearance of being in a flourishing state, perhaps owing to the moisture they derived from the river: but, in short, this moss appeared to be the royal plant, which ruled absolute over the vegetable kingdom of the country, and distributed its bounty and influence amongst a particular race of men and animals.’ Vol. ii. p. 33.

The little river Pallajervi is derived from an adjoining lake, in which is a pleasing little island. A storm had cooled the air, and driven away the moschettoes. The travelers pitched their tent, which in that country was a palace, and for three days enjoyed the pleasures of hunting, fishing, and bathing, without the usual attendant inconveniencies. The *sterna hirundo* directs the fisherman to the shoals of fish; and these birds are rewarded by a share of the prey.

The travelers now leave their former guides, the Finlanders, and are escorted by a party of Laplanders, consisting of seven men and a young woman. The heat in ascending becomes more violent, arising, in the sun, to 45° of Celsius—113° of Fahrenheit. The Laplanders are found to want the strength and perseverance of their predecessors, and are soon overcome by the heat, to which the necessary defence from the moschettoes greatly contributes. The situation of the travelers



was truly distressing. The wind did not beat down the smoke, and the moschettoes were consequently in myriads around. They were obliged to eat with their gloves on, to draw aside the veil from the mouth with the utmost precaution; and even then they often swallowed their deadly tormentors with their viands.

The Laplanders are children of nature, and follow her dictates without regard to order, to ceremony, or regulations of any kind. They eat till they are asleep, and then rise to eat again. Of religion, they have not the slightest idea; nor do they seem for a moment to reflect on any superintending power. Like the Zingari (the Gipseys), they indulge in every gratification, and chatter eternally; but, unlike them, do not steal—for they cannot find any booty at a less expense of labour than that with which they can honestly acquire it.

Our travelers now arrive at the river Pepojovaivi; and it is from incidental information only that we find they reached the extreme heights; for this river falls into that of Alten, whose *embouchure* is in the Frozen Ocean, to the north-west of the Cape, which is the object of their pursuit. They proceeded, however, slowly; for their Laplanders were inexperienced in guarding their boats from danger, and were, consequently, subject to frequent interruptions. But on this high ground the current of the river was diversified with lakes rather than cataracts; and there was more of delay than danger. The music and poetry of the wandering Laplanders are of the lowest rank. They scream till the voice faints from fatigue, and the scarcely audible expiring breath is consumed in the same repetitions which first engaged its more active exertions.

Kautokeino is a town insulated by morasses, which our travelers, however, found the means of passing. It belongs to Denmark, in consequence of the treaty between that country and Sweden, by which the former retains the districts whose rivers fall into the Frozen Ocean. The account of this singular region, *toto ab orbe divisa*, is curious and interesting. We regret that we cannot enlarge on it; but scenes more interesting still remain to be noticed.

The river Pepojovaivi, we have said, falls into the river of Alten; and the latter was, in our author's opinion, one of the most beautiful they had seen. On this high ground it was diversified by lakes, and scenery 'which might beseeem a gentler climate.' The lakes were interspersed with islands, the waters of a pure crystal, and the banks of the softest sand.

'The river of Alten, after spreading into several lakes, and again contracting itself within its banks, which are here and there fringed with trees, and consist sometimes of rocks and sometimes of bare sand, precipitates itself all of a sudden from between two rocks about forty feet in perpendicular height. There it forms a magnificent



cataract ; and the agitated water sends up a cloud of vapour to the skies, through which is seen a beautiful and majestic rainbow. This cataract, of course, interrupted our navigation, and our boats were drawn over the land for nearly the space of an English mile, to a place where the river again became passable. On the borders of this cascade, the Laplanders, who accompanied us from Kautokeino, had a magazine of fish drying in the air. After exploring the beauties of the waterfall, we lighted up a fire in this place, and had some of those fishes dressed ; a part boiled, and some broiled. The Lapland fashion of broiling, is by fixing a fish on a stick, and then holding it to the fire.

‘ After our repast we pursued our voyage ; and as we proceeded, had a fine view, and took a drawing of a very beautiful cataract made by the falls of a tributary stream belonging to the Alten, which descends on the right bank of that river over a number of shelving rocks, disposed like steps of stairs, as if they were the work of art. It was covered with a canopy of trees, which intercepted the rays of the sun. We continued to descend by a branch of the river Alten, which flowed with such rapidity, that if credit may be given to our Lapland boatmen, we performed almost a Norwegian mile (or eight English) in little more than a quarter of an hour. When the current began to be very strong, our boatmen desired us to look at our watches, that we might be able to ascertain how much time we should take in getting on a mile. We did so ; and when we reached the end of what they computed to be a Norwegian mile, we found that the time taken up was twenty minutes.’ Vol. ii. p. 84.

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‘ Next morning, before we resumed our voyage, we paid a visit to the small church of Masi, which is embosomed in the midst of trees and brushwood, about three hundred paces from the banks of the river. If in the whole of our travels in those northern regions we had not so much as seen one Laplander, or had landed near this church from a balloon, we could not possibly have formed any other opinion than that we had come to a land of pigmies. I was greatly struck with the architecture and the dimensions of this building ; the whole was on so dwarfish a scale, so little, so low, and so narrow, that at first sight I should have been tempted to take it not for a real church, but for the model of one. To have an adequate idea of its diminutive size, imagine a door of little more than three feet high, a roof no more than six, and the whole edifice, comprising a vestibule, the body of the church, and a sacristy, or vestry, not exceeding eight yards in length, by four in breadth. It seemed as if I, who was thought in these parts,

“ In bigness to surpass earth’s giant sons,”

might, when placed in a corner of the church, the farthest from the pulpit, have almost touched the minister’s nose with the point of my boot, by stretching out my leg without even rising from my seat. The native of Italy could not restrain a smile at this specimen of Lapland architecture.’ Vol. ii. p. 85.

The river being no longer passable on account of its cataracts, they ascend the mountains on the left; and the drear scenery, with their eternal tormentors the moschettoes, render this part of their journey truly uncomfortable.

'We continued to ascend, for the space of four English miles, through a thicket of dwarf birch (*betula nana*) and birch trees, and over ground uniformly covered with thick moss, which rendered our journey extremely fatiguing. The day was overcast with clouds, but still there was a suffocating heat, which occasioned a great depression and heaviness of spirits. This was the most favourable opportunity that could possibly be imagined for the musketoes. The quantity of those terrible insects lodged amongst the bushes and moss was so great, that at every step we raised such a cloud of them, as covered us all over from head to foot. Imagine a number of putrid bacon hams exposed to the rays of a summer's sun, and all covered with flies: such was our condition, and the disgusting appearance of our persons. After we had ascended four miles, the mountain began to assume a flattish and naked aspect, without a single tree. It was wholly covered with the common moss of the rein-deer, save where this extensive carpet was broken, and chequered with morasses, basons of water, and lakes, altogether forming a landscape the most dreary and melancholy conceivable. There was nothing to engage our attention, to amuse our fancy, or to console and cheer our spirits. A vast expanse lay before us, which we were to measure with our feet, through morasses in which we were not without danger of being swallowed up. On the summit of this chain of mountains we traversed a space of not less than fifteen English miles, sometimes wrapped in a cloud, and sometimes marching over the snow, though in the midst of summer. The temperature of the air, in this elevation, had undergone a considerable change. Our thermometer indicated a remarkable difference of degrees from that of the surface of the river of Alten. This climate was not very inviting to the musketoes. If we had not been obliged to pursue our way through a number of low shrubs, we should have been but little troubled by them: but the swarms that we raised from the bushes when we began to climb, accompanied us faithfully during the whole of our progress through the mountains. Even when our route lay through heights covered with snow, our eternal foes pursued us still. Unfortunately it was a perfect calm: not a breath of wind to drive away those pestiferous companions.'

Vol. ii. p. 87.

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'When we had any eminence to ascend, we looked at our thermometer at the bottom, and found that it was colder by two degrees at the summit of some of them. The weather all the while was very unfavourable and incommodious for traveling: it was excessively moist, and the clouds with which we were constantly surrounded, communicated such a degree of humidity to our tent, baggage, and clothes, that we could no where enjoy any comfortable repose. We thought it better, without halting, to push forward as well as we could. At length,



by dint of perseverance in our fatiguing progress, we began to descend the mountains. After passing by a cataract, dashing perpendicularly from the summit of some rocks, which was fed by the melting masses of snow and the moisture of the clouds that crept along the brows of the mountains, we were presented with the most charming landscapes. We were ready to fancy ourselves transported as by a magic rod into another atmosphere, another country, another climate. On the opposite side of those mountains, which are the Alps of Lapland, all is on a gigantic scale, all is rich and beautiful. Vegetation of every kind is both abundant and luxuriant, the herbage thick, and the trees large. Here they start up to view all at once in such frequent and extensive groupes, as are not to be seen any where in any of the declivities of the southern chain of mountains. We plunged into the depths of a wood where the grass rose to the height of our knees : but I cannot express the pleasure I felt at seeing again the river of Alten rolling its pellucid stream through rich meadows, and with a velocity which recalled to our minds our passage from Kautokeino to Koinosjoki. Betwixt Kautokeino to the charming district where we had now arrived, a space of one hundred and twenty English miles, we did not meet with a human creature, excepting the two Laplanders of Kautokeino, who left their nets and followed us, as before-mentioned.' Vol. ii. p. 93.

At Alten-Gaard, the travelers seem to have attained the object of their pursuit : but many difficulties still remained. They had reached the foot of the north-eastern chain of mountains, extending, as we have said, from the Naze, along the shore of the Northern Ocean ; and the North Cape was still to the north and the east, while the intervening space was indented by the sea. The remainder of the journey was of course impracticable, but by that element. At Alten, the last habitation of civilised beings, they were received with kindness by a Norwegian merchant, and recovered their fatigues before they proceeded. In their course they often landed ; and the scenes they witnessed were truly interesting. We have copied much, yet ought not to omit the description of the mountain Laplander's tent and herd.

' We at last came to a mountain Laplander's tent, and our curiosity was satisfied ; this tent was of a conical form, and not shaped as tents are in general. They put together several posts or beams of wood, fresh cut down, sticking them with one end in the ground, and making them meet at the top. These beams they covered all round with pieces of woollen cloth, which they fastened to one another. The diameter of the tent we saw at the base was eight English feet. In the middle was the fire, and around the fire sat the Laplander's wife, a boy, who was his son, and some inhospitable and surly dogs, which never ceased barking at us all the time we remained near them. Fast by the tent was erected a shed, consisting of five or six sticks or posts, that were fastened to one another near the top, in the same manner as the tent, and covered with skins and



pieces of cloth. Under this canopy the Laplanders kept their provisions, which were cheese of the rein-deer, a small quantity of milk of the same, and dried fish. A little further was a rude inclosure, or paling, made in haste, which served as a fold or yard for the rein-deer when they were brought together to be milked—those animals were not near the tents at the time we made our visit: they were in the mountains, from whence they would not descend till towards night. As we did not feel ourselves disposed to ramble about in quest of them, at the hazard of losing ourselves among a series of mountains, exhibiting throughout an uniform appearance, we judged it more advisable to offer some brandy to the Laplanders, on condition that they would go with their dogs and bring the rein-deer home, or as near as they could to the tent. Scarcely had they swallowed the brandy, which we had given them as an earnest of more, when we heard the shrill barking of the dogs resounding through the mountains. The Laplanders then told us that the rein-deer were coming; and very shortly after we beheld a troop of not less than three hundred deer descending from the mountains in a direction towards the tent. We then insisted that they should drive the rein-deer within the inclosure near the tent, that we might have an opportunity of seeing and examining them the better, and tasting the milk fresh from the does. They did as we desired; but not without very great difficulty, because the animals, not being accustomed to be shut up in the fold at that hour of the day, were unwilling to be confined, and it was not till after repeated efforts that the Laplanders were able at last, with the assistance of the dogs, to compel them to enter. We had then time to view them at our leisure. Those poor animals were lean, and of a sad and melancholy appearance; their hair hung down, and their excessive panting indicated how much they suffered at this season of heat and affliction: their skins were pierced here and there, and ulcerated by the musquetoës, and the eggs of the fly called, in Lapponese, *kerma*, (*æstrus tarandi*, Linn.) which tormented them in the most cruel manner. I made a collection of those insects and their eggs, intending them as presents for my entomological friends. As to the milk which we tasted, it is not so good at this time as in winter. In summer it has always a kind of strong or wild taste, and too much of what the French call an *haut gout*.' Vol. ii. p. 107,

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'The North Cape is an enormous rock, which projecting far into the ocean, and being exposed to all the fury of the waves and the outrage of tempests, crumbles every year more and more into ruins. Here every thing is solitary, every thing is steril, every thing sad and despondent. The shadowy forest no longer adorns the brow of the mountain; the singing of the birds, which enlivened even the woods of Lapland, is no longer heard in this scene of desolation; the ruggedness of the dark gray rock is not covered by a single shrub; the only music is the hoarse murmuring of the waves, ever and anon renewing their assaults on the huge masses that oppose them. The northern sun, creeping at midnight at the distance of five diameters along the horizon, and the immeasurable ocean in apparent contact

with the skies, form the grand outlines in the sublime picture presented to the astonished spectator. The incessant cares and pursuits of anxious mortals are recollected as a dream; the various forms and energies of animated nature are forgotten; the earth is contemplated only in its elements, and as constituting a part of the solar system.' Vol. ii. p. 110.

Here we must rest for the present, since our author's return furnishes nothing particularly interesting; and the remainder of the volume, containing 'General Remarks on Lapland,' which are truly valuable, would detain us too long at this time. We mean to return to the subject in another number.

We cannot close the present without explaining some of the difficulties formerly noticed. The author, an Italian, left, it is said, his native country at the moment of war and devastation, to seek tranquillity in a less genial clime; and he speaks to us through the medium of an interpreter, his observations having been reduced to their present shape by Dr. William Thomson. This account is selected from the last volume of 'Public Characters,' a work which we should have before noticed—for three volumes still remain unexamined—if we had been able to determine, satisfactorily to ourselves, the degree of regard they merit. We trust, however, to introduce them soon before our readers.

(*To be continued.*)

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ART. XIII.—*Mary Stewart, Queen of Scots, an historical Drama.*  
8vo. 4s. sewed. Longman and Rees. 1801.

THE author of this drama observes, in a note, that 'the misfortunes of Mary Stewart have so frequently been the topic of the historian, the antiquary, and the dramatist, that he who resumes the theme must expect to encounter no small share of that prejudice which a general belief that a subject is exhausted never fails to create.' The prejudice here mentioned may possibly exist in the public mind; but genius can produce a harvest of flowers from a soil which appears to have been impoverished by excess of culture; and we may adduce the work before us as an instance of the truth of such an assertion.

The nature of the historical drama not requiring any attention to the unities of time and place, the author of *Mary Stewart* has availed himself of the fullest licence, in hurrying his reader from Windsor to Lochleven, and from the neighbourhood of Glasgow to the borders of England. In the compass of his five acts, he also gives a sketch of the history of the unfortunate princess from her imprisonment in Lochleven-castle to her arrival in the territories of Elizabeth. Thus, whilst he avoids the difficulty, he

foregoes the praise which accrues to the construction of a regular plot. We can only regard his scenes as a series of pictures, most of which, however, we think extremely well wrought.

As a happy specimen of his descriptive powers, we shall quote a considerable portion of the first scene, in which Melville, the ambassador of Mary, incautiously delineates to her rival the full charms of his royal mistress.

‘ *Eliz.* You’re welcome, Melvil.

‘ *Mel.* God save your highness!

‘ *Eliz.* How fares the queen of Scots, our much-lov’d sister?

‘ *Mel.* She fares as well as captive queens are wont.

‘ *Eliz.* Still in the castle of Lochleven isle?

‘ *Mel.* Still there she languishes. Alas! to her

Day after day forms but one tedious night

Of gloomy suffering, with scarce a hope

Of dawn, unless your highness interpose

In her behalf. O! did you but behold

That beauteous, fading form——

‘ *Eliz.* Withdraw.

[*To the attendants.*

‘ *Cecil.* Is she indeed as fair as rumour says?

‘ *Mel.* She is so fair—words cannot tell how fair!

‘ *Cecil.* Describe this paragon.

‘ *Mel.* Describe!——

Description’s tongue would falter in th’ attempt.

‘ *Cecil.* Try, try—I’ll question you,

‘ *Mel.* It is in vain.

‘ *Cecil.* Her brow?

‘ *Mel.* ’Tis seldom seen, save when the Zephyr parts’

The raven lock, that as in envy shades it.

‘ *Eliz.* What foolery!

[*To Cecil.*

‘ *Cecil.* Her eyes?

‘ *Mel.* A middle, ’tween the falcon’s and the dove’s.

‘ *Cecil.* Her cheek?

‘ *Mel.* An opening wild rose, of the faintest pink.

In each the slightest smile a dimple shows:—

The Scylla and Charybdis of the Loves,

In which unwary hearts sad shipwreck meet.

‘ *Cecil.* How sounds her voice?

‘ *Mel.* In speech, gentle as when the west wind’s breath

Sighs through the new-down’d willow leaves; in song

Mellifluous, full, then floating soft

As Echo answering Philomela’s plaint:

And, though a queen, a blush still shows the woman.

‘ *Eliz.* Cecil!

‘ *Cecil.* And does she touch the harp with equal skill?

‘ *Mel.* The chords, though struck with careless sweep, speak love,

Like Cupid’s wing along Apollo’s lyre;

And with the notes so sweet is blent her voice

In magic harmony, that none may know

Which is the voice, and which the silver string.



‘ *Eliz.* Good, good : That she excels  
(Although your words sound more like love than truth)  
In each external grace, we know : But tell me,  
Is she much vers’d in languages ?

‘ *Mel.* She speaks the tongues of Scotland and of France  
With equal grace : Italia’s is her sport :  
Each dialect her people use she knows ;  
And to the humblest she so suits her phrase,  
That rustic maids, at first abash’d, look up,  
Thinking they hear a sister-cottager.  
In Greek your majesty o’ermatches her.

‘ *Cecil.* And is she liberal as becomes a queen ?

‘ *Mel.* Her hand is heaven : her charity  
On the receiver falls darkling, like dew  
On flowers, unseen from whence, yet weighing down,  
With overloaded cup, their bending stalks.

‘ *Eliz.* But is she just as generous ? What she gives  
Belongs not to herself, but to the state.

‘ *Mel.* She has—she had her own, the royal lands.

‘ *Eliz.* But tell me, Melvil,  
Does your fair mistress poise the scales of justice  
With even hand—like me, with steady hand ?

‘ *Mel.* Yes, she is just ; but yet—mercy too oft  
Inclines the balance wrong. I have beheld  
This beauteous queen half kneel, with eyes suffus’d,  
Praying her surly chancellor to stop  
The warrant wing’d with death ; and she would lay  
Her hand on his, with softly-pleading pressure,  
Untill she saw his fix’d regard relax  
Into a smile contending with a frown.  
But if a judge (and she was eagle-ey’d)  
Were found perverting justice ’gainst the poor,  
Her look how chang’d ! Not the fam’d censor’s brow,  
When dashing from the tablet venal names,  
Was e’er more sternly knit.

‘ *Eliz.* Which is more fair, I or the queen of Scots ?

‘ *Mel.* She within Scotland’s realm, in England you.

‘ *Eliz.* To-morrow here we shall concert  
What should be done for your much-injur’d mistress,  
Our dearest sister. Farewell. [*Exeunt Melvil and Cecil.*  
Aye, let her pine until her radiant eyes  
Sink lustreless, till fades the rose’s glow.  
No more shall silent crowds hang on her smile ;  
Bent o’er the watery mirror that surrounds her,  
Herself shall be her sole idolater :  
There to her answering image she may pour  
The unavailing incense of her tears.’ P. 4.

In the following scene, which represents the escape of the princess from Lochleven, we find much fertility of fancy, and many true touches of nature.

SCENE—*Shore of the main land between St. Serwan's wood and the lake.*  
(*Time—Night.*)

*Enter Montgomery, looking round. Hamilton seen in the back ground.*

‘ *Ham.* Who comes ?

‘ *Mont.* Is it lord Hamilton who speaks ?

‘ *Ham.* Aye, and Montgomery's friend.

Are all things ready ?

‘ *Mont.* All right. You'll see the queen—'tis near the time :  
The Pleiades peer o'er the eastern tower.

Where are the horses ?

‘ *Ham.* Behind these trees ; listen, the night's so still,  
You'll hear them browsing on the dewy blade.

‘ *Mont.* They are not loose ?

‘ *Ham.* No, no, they're led. I wish the queen were mounted.

‘ *Mont.* It is full time.

‘ *Ham.* I dread cross accidents—Look, see yon lights !

‘ *Mont.* That !

‘ *Ham.* But hist!—a dash and motion in the lake !

The stars that in it shone so steadily,  
See how they dance—The boat is surely off.

‘ *Mont.* 'Tis but the springing of the sportive fry.  
I wish indeed we heard the dash of oars.

‘ *Ham.* But list again.

‘ *Mont.* Yes, now I think I hear the joyful sound—

It is—they're safe—I hear the quick-plied oars :

You'll see anon the little bark approach.

Alas ! how chang'd the royal equipage

From what it was upon that jubilee day,

When Mary Stewart, in a barge of state,

Approach'd the Lothian beach ! Graceful she stood,

With one hand clasp'd around the rose-wreath'd post,

Which o'er her head upheld a silken sky,

Ting'd faintly with a broken-vaulted rainbow.

At intervals was heard a quire of flutes,

Breathing such lays !—

The listening waves seem'd music-lull'd, heaving

With noiseless swell, that gently rais'd

And yet half yielded 'neath the gilded prow.

Then what a shout ! as kneel'd the beauteous queen,

Weeping with joy, to kiss her native soil !

The flowers, tear-sprinkled, sprung to meet her lips,

And wreath'd themselves into her floating tresses.

Rising, she clasp'd her hands, and look'd to heaven.

O ! 'twas a day of which, from sun to sun,

I ne'er should tire to speak. But see, they near—

Woes me, how chang'd !—stealing away by night.

‘ *Ham.* They come, they come ; there, look—how near the shore.

I think I see a moving darkness—a cloud

Swift gliding o'er the inverted galaxy,

In quick succession hiding the deep stars.

' *Mont.* They near—how fast they near—their voices—list!—  
That soothing voice is Adelaide's; she's cheering  
The doubting spirits of the queen.

' *Ham.* What means that gleamy waving in the gloom?

' *Mont.* 'Twill be her highness' hand signing the cross.  
Haste, let us welcome them—I see they mean  
To land upon the rock.

[*Exeunt.*

' (*Noise, voices heard.*)—*Re-enter, Hamilton and Montgomery, with Mary  
and Adelaide, Douglas and Fishermen.*

' *Mary.* Mother of God, I thank thee!

' *Ade.* Holy Virgin!

' *Doug.* Rest for a moment on this mossy plat.

' *Ade.* Is it your grace's pleasure here to stop?

' *Mary.* No, not one instant.

The alarm was giv'n ere we had midway come;  
I heard the clanking of the draw-bridge chains;  
And see yon crossing lights along the island!

' *Doug.* Fear not.

' *Mary.* Yet, yet I fear: The shadow of a tree,  
Or ev'n the rustling of a single leaf,  
Or trickling of a dew-drop,  
Would make me quake: My mind, alas! 'tis crush'd;  
Captivity has quite unnerv'd my soul.  
Where are we going?

' *Ham.* To Hamilton; your highness' friends are there.' p. 22.

Our author, however, not unfrequently mistakes the bombast  
for the sublime; we otherwise should not have met with the  
following passage, p. 13.

' It cannot be—Rather may lightning blast me,  
And bear my spirit on its forked point,  
And nail it to the very cope of hell,  
To be the scoff of devils.

Thus again, p. 27.

' I'd ride a thunderbolt to serve my people.'

And in like manner, Francisco, p. 141.

' ————— To look on her,  
Were I an angel, I would quit my charge,  
And let the planets reel into confusion,  
Till Chaos again unfurl'd his flag of night,  
And, with a thunder-rimm'd volcano for his trump,  
Proclaim'd his reign restor'd; then with a smile  
She'd look the darkness back, and with her voice  
Recal the flying orbs, and, seraph-like,  
Reharmonise the music of the spheres.'

After making every deduction, however, which is demanded  
by censorial severity, we find in this drama a great preponderance  
of merit.



ART. XIV.—*Essays on the Diseases of Children, with Cases and Dissections. Essay I. Of Cynanche Trachealis, or Croup. By John Cheyne, M. D. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1801.*

THIS is the first of a series of essays on the subject expressed in the title. It may appear a part of fastidious criticism to object to the form; but our author will recollect, that he must occasionally write for the humble apothecary as well as the opulent physician—that a form so splendid may often repel the one, while it may not always be agreeable to the other. The size of the plates did not require an extensive margin, though their beauty, and in general their accuracy, would not disgrace the typography of our best printers. To turn, however, to the essay itself. The disease which is the subject of it is a formidable, and very frequently a fatal, one. Our author has described it with accuracy; and, whatever success may be boasted of, will not be owing to medicines beyond his range of practice. Yet this is confined. Early and decisive bleeding, emetics and blisters, are the principal remedies: perhaps the first alone can be pronounced truly successful; and, though averse from quackery, we would advise every parent to distinguish the croupy respiration, and to have recourse to early and active bleeding, chiefly from the jugular veins.

We have lately seen in adults what we have considered as croupy coughs and breathing; but they have not induced a dangerous disease. In fact, it could not be called croup; yet the symptoms were such, that, in a child, we should have conceived this disease inevitable. They have however yielded to common remedies. Michaëlis, our author, and others, have clearly ascertained that the effusion is not mucous, nor does it proceed from the mucous glands; for this obvious reason, that mucus never concretes into a membrane. Yet, when in dissection we follow the divisions of the trachea, the lower ramifications appear ostensibly filled with a mucous substance, though we know that this in time would concrete also into a membrane. In reality, it has been clearly shown that the effusion is not from glands, but from the inflamed surface, and chiefly consists of the fibrous portion of the blood—the portion most highly animalised. Squills must therefore be useless, and the effects of emetics greatly limited. On this principle, we have neglected the evacuation of the crust, and, after bleeding, have attempted to relieve the inflamed vessels by a free perspiration—we are sorry that we cannot add, with success. On the other hand, calomel, seneka, and assafoetida, we have generally found useless. In fact, the authors who recommend

those medicines have not, as we have already remarked, distinguished the disease with accuracy.

‘ That part of the plan of cure upon which I would chiefly dwell, is bloodletting. If in the inflammatory stage it is not, in the first instance, attended with an abatement of the bad symptoms, it must be repeated according to the strength of the patient. Should the physician dislike the use of the lancet a second time (and indeed in this repetition he will not at all times have the concurrence of the parents), I recommend the application of a number of leeches to the neck. The many opportunities which I have had of observing the advantage decidedly gained by such treatment, have overcome the repugnance I had to the employment of this remedy in the beginning of my practice; and had I no other reason for affirming that the acute asthma of Millar is not synonymous with croup, this alone were sufficient, that he dissuades us from bloodletting, and recommends assafœtida, musk, and Mindererus’s spirit.

‘ The second stage of the disease is known by some remission in the phlogistic appearances, such as a change in the countenance from a florid to a leaden colour; by the pulse getting smaller; and by the difficulty of breathing continuing or increasing, the child frequently breathing easiest in postures which might be thought most unfavourable to respiration; and by a sediment in the urine. From having observed in dissections that the thyroid veins are very turgid, I have been induced, in this stage of the disease, to apply leeches to the neck; I have also used emetics, to procure, by the agitation which they produce, the expectoration of the membrane, should it occupy, as sometimes happens, only a small space in the trachea. The bowels are to be kept open by clysters; and the low regimen observed in the first stage is to be laid aside; and the strength of the patient supported.

‘ It has been proposed to give children calomel under this disease, throwing it in quickly, with a view of bringing on salivation. I have ordered it in the second stage, but I never found it to be of any service. In a chronic state of the disease, I think this medicine promises success. In the first stage, the remedies we already possess are so valuable, that I should be unwilling to relinquish them, unless the superior powers of a substitute were demonstrated.’ r. 26.

The disease is undoubtedly spasmodic; but it begins with inflammation; and hence the membranous effusion arises, which can rarely be separated—scarcely in any instance absorbed. Its tenacity is so slight, and it passes through such minute ramifications, that bronchotomy, which has been recommended, could not be attempted with any prospect of success. For this reason, if its formation be not checked in the first moment, the disease is, we believe, scarcely ever cured. The author thinks it peculiar to the sea-side; but we have not found it so; nor, in our experience, is it endemic to marshy situations or confined air. Whatever consequence may be



drawn from the exsudation of the fibrous part of the blood, delicate children are, notwithstanding, chiefly subject to it.

The plates are curiously coloured, and in general beautiful; and several cases are added, which are described with much precision and perspicuity. The second essay we have not seen, and are not aware that it is published. It relates to the diseases of the intestines.

ART. XV.—*The Triumphs of Christianity over Infidelity displayed, or the coming of the Messiah, the true Key to the right Understanding of the most difficult Passages in the New Testament: viz. of the Predictions of the Coming of Christ, of St. Paul's Man of Sin, of the Antichrist of St. John, and of the sure Word of Prophecy of St. Peter; being a full Answer to the Objection of Mr. Gibbon, that our Lord and his Apostles predicted the near Approach of the End of the World in their own Time. The Whole being intended as an Illustration of the Necessity and Importance of considering the Gospels as Histories, and particularly as Histories of the great Controversy between our Lord and the Jews, concerning the true Nature of the Messiah's Character. By N. Nisbett, A. M. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1802.*

THE mistakes of Christians are the triumphs of infidels; but the cause of Christianity must not be confounded with the errors or vices of those who believe, or profess to believe, the Gospel. It was a prevalent opinion in the early ages of the church, that the final judgement would soon take place; and the historian of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire triumphs, in his own sarcastic manner, on the delay of Christian expectation during seventeen hundred years. We may safely allow that Christians have formed erroneous judgements, while they have notwithstanding referred their opinions to Scripture as a solid and unerring basis; but if they have been mistaken in their judgements, the truth of Scripture is not necessarily shaken; and the Bible must be fairly examined, before it can be declared guilty of countenancing error. The historian refers his readers to the celebrated prophecies in St. Matthew's Gospel; and had our Saviour spoken, in those passages, of the end of the world, and asserted that it was to take place during the life-time of some of his hearers, the triumph of infidelity would doubtless have been complete; but if, instead of speaking of any such event, he referred to another event which did take place during the lifetime of some of his hearers, then his veracity as a prophet is established, and the weapon of the infidel recoils upon himself.

This question is examined in a masterly manner in the work before us. The writer advances a very simple position—that the histories recorded of our Saviour are the histories of his con-



troversy with the Jews on this single question—whether he were or were not the Messiah? And it is shown, that, on his part, the controversy was conducted with the utmost wisdom; and that, in every instance, those proofs were given which were best adapted to the circumstances in which he was placed. At the time he made his appearance, there was a general expectation of the Messiah, who was to free the Jews from the degrading subjection in which they lived, restore them to their ancient splendor, and make them lords of the human race. Our Saviour's appearance contradicted all these expectations; and his sermon on the mount pointed out a kingdom of a totally different nature. It was in vain, before such a prejudiced race, that he appealed to prophecy—that he performed miracles; and when they had accomplished their inhuman purpose in his death, it was scarcely to be imagined that they should entertain any respect for the memory of one who had been executed as a thief or a murderer.

The whole nation, with the exception of, comparatively speaking, a very small body, were—if our faith in Christianity be true—guilty of rejecting their Messiah; and when they cried out that his blood should be upon them and their children, they declared, unknowingly, the sentence of God upon their sins. As they had rejected the miracles and the doctrines of our Saviour, there remained no other means of settling the controversy, than to take entirely from them all further expectations, to destroy their temple and worship, and to show them the power of him whom they had rejected, by a signal instance of divine justice and vengeance. Our Saviour foretold this before his death; and, in his answer to the questions of the apostles on the sign of his coming and the end of the age, predicted, in the fullest manner, the exemplary punishment impending on that impious and rebellious race; and by connecting it with the expression of his coming in the answer to the apostles, and using the same expression in his answer to the high-priest, established the grand truth of his being the Messiah in the most awful and characteristic terms that language could devise.

But many divines, allowing that the prophecies above mentioned evidently point out the fate of Jerusalem and the Jewish nation, are led, from the sublimity of the language, to conceive that our Saviour had a double meaning; and infidels, seising hold of the concessions of their adversaries, maintain that he was a false prophet. Our author examines the arguments of both parties. Gibbon, Edwards, Horsley, Watson, Richards, Kett, Mede, Newton, Macknight, Benson, Taylor, Halifax, Porteus, and almost every author who has written upon the subject, quoted or referred to. The phrases—‘the coming of Chn,’ ‘coming in clouds and great glory,’ ‘the man of sin,’ ‘the christ,’ and every thing that bears upon the main point, are examined with sound judgement, and by the true laws of scrip-  
tural interpretation.

criticism. The opinion of Grotius on the man of sin is maintained; and the pope is deprived of a title conferred on him, almost unanimously, by the protestants. The anti-Christ, of whom St. John spoke in his epistles, were, some of them, at the time of his writing, already in the world; and all made their appearance within a few years after; which was a convincing proof that he knew what he wrote, and that he was writing in the last hour—namely, within a short time before the destruction of Jerusalem and the Jewish age.

The view which this writer presents of the four Gospels cannot be too much commended; and, as the subject is of such importance to every Christian, we will, in the author's own words, show the advantage of thus contemplating the sacred history.

‘ By attending to the Gospels as histories, and particularly as histories of the great controversy concerning the true nature of the Messiah's character, it has appeared with great force of evidence in the preceding pages, that the disciples of Jesus did conduct themselves precisely in the manner which was to have been expected; and the more closely they are attended to as histories—the more numerous will be the proofs of this, and consequently the more irrefragable will be the evidences of their genuine authenticity, with all who are capable of judging of the nature of evidence. If they had been considered in this light, it would have been utterly impossible either for the friend or the enemy of Christianity to have conceived that Christ predicted his second coming in that generation; for it would have been seen, with an evidence which is not to be resisted by any one who possesses the smallest pretensions to candor, that the language upon which this opinion has been founded naturally arose out of the circumstances of the times, and of the difference of the character of the Messiah from that which the Jews had invariably affixed to it. It may confidently be affirmed, that if the Gospels be viewed in this light, they will not only, in many important instances, be unintelligible, and half their beauties be concealed, but a thousand internal evidences of their authenticity must inevitably escape the reader's notice. The instance of the charge brought against our Lord, by the historian of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, and but too much countenanced by divines of all descriptions, of Christ's having predicted his second coming in the clouds to judge all mankind, is one of the most striking proofs of this; for, if the representation which has, in the preceding pages, been made of this matter, shall be found to be correct, it must now appear that the language which he made use of to describe his coming, is among the most decisive and authentic evidences of the truth of the history. And what renders this evidence the more valuable and important is, that no lapse of time can lessen its force, or render it less capable of producing conviction. The importance therefore of viewing the Gospels in this light must be particularly striking, and must be attended with the most beneficial effects to the vanishing scepticism and infidelity, and in shewing, in a strong point of view, that Christianity is worthy of all acceptance! With respect to the Epistles—the view which has, in the preceding pages, been given of them, establishes such a delightful har-



mony between them and the Gospels, and so completely does away all suspicion of the authors of them having expected the end of the world in their time, that the mouth of infidelity must become dumb, and the credit of the apostles be established, as being well acquainted with the doctrine of their great master with respect to his coming, and with the extensive designs of Christianity with respect to future ages.

‘ The xxivth of Matthew and the parallel chapters are of particular importance, in consequence of our Lord’s having connected with his prediction of the destruction of Jerusalem, the final proof of the true nature of his character, in opposition to the manner in which the Jewish nation expected him to come. More attention, unquestionably, should have been given to these chapters, in this view, than has been given to them, as it would necessarily have pointed out the importance of ascertaining with precision their true meaning, and of keeping close to that meaning, in examining the apostolic Epistles. Nothing can be more evident than that these chapters contain the true key to the unlocking the genuine meaning of many important parts of the Epistles. A better proof of this cannot be given, than that all commentators have, in their explanation of these Epistles, referred to those chapters—but, not having understood them, have made the apostles speak a language which never was intended by them, and subjected them to the charge of having predicted the near approach of the end of the world, when in reality they were only reminding those to whom they wrote, of the near approach of the destruction of Jerusalem. That awful calamity had not then taken place, and the noticing it, in the particular manner they have done, must, in the estimation of all good judges of the nature of evidence, constitute a most striking proof of their authenticity. The earnestness with which our Lord pointed out the signs of its approach, and directed them to be particularly attentive to those signs, especially when connected with the declarations that the destruction of Jerusalem would be the crowning proof of the true nature of his character, rendered it absolutely impossible for the apostles, if they were faithful to their trust, not to make it the subject of their particular attention! For what reason else did our Lord dwell so much upon it as he appears to have done?

‘ It may not be without its use, perhaps, to observe the gradation of language made use of by the apostles in describing the approach of this awful calamity. In the Second Epistle to the Thessalonians, which has generally been supposed to have been written as early as the year fifty-two, the apostle asserts, that “the day of Christ shall not come except there be an apostacy first,” &c. *i. e.* that certain signs would intervene which had not yet appeared. The Epistle to the Philippians is supposed to have been written ten years later, and there St. Paul declares that it was at hand. In that to the Hebrews, which was written at a still later period, the writer’s language is—“The day is approaching—Yet a little while and he that shall come will come, and shall not tarry.” St. Peter, in his First Epistle, mentions particularly “the day of visitation,” and the “fiery trial,” and declares that “the end of all things was at hand,” and that “the time was come when judgement must begin at the house of God.” And St. John, in his First Epistle, intimates that it was still nearer,



by saying, that it was "the last hour," and that "there were many Antichrists, whereby they knew that it was the last hour." These, the judicious and attentive reader will consider, as decisive proofs of accuracy, and are, perhaps, among the best proofs of the time when the Epistles were severally written.' P. 257.

'The prediction of Jesus concerning the destruction of Jerusalem being verified—not only his character as a true prophet of God was established—but the great controversy concerning the true nature of the Messiah's character was finally settled; it being thereby proved that his coming as the Messiah, as he had told the Jewish rulers upon his trial, would be "in clouds"—or "in vengeance," instead of his coming to raise them to great worldly prosperity: Thus was the doctrine of the first coming of Christ fully established, and it may now be left to the judgement of the impartial part of mankind, whether the historian of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire was not entirely mistaken, when he asserted that "the near approach of the end of the world had been predicted by the apostles, and that those who understood, in their literal sense, the discourses of Christ himself, were obliged to expect the second and glorious coming of the son of man in the clouds before that generation was totally extinguished, which had beheld his humble condition upon earth." He will see in the assertion of this writer, that "for wise purposes this error was permitted to subsist in the church," nothing but a gross and ill-founded libel on our holy religion, and that the doctrine of the second coming of Christ was eminently calculated for wise purposes, not for a short period of time only, but for the support of the faith and practice of Christians in all ages of the world, and that the more closely the mysterious language of prophecy and revelation, upon this subject, is pressed—the more clearly it will appear to be a doctrine every way worthy of God, and worthy of the acceptance of mankind.' P. 261.

In bringing such decisive arguments on a controversy which has long agitated the Christian world, the writer's time and attention have been well employed. The work is evidently the result of extensive reading and deep meditation; and it deserves to be studied by every clergyman. As long as Mr. Gibbon's history is circulated and perused with evidently increasing satisfaction, so long is there a danger that the poison of infidelity will continue to insinuate itself into the vitals of the British public. This work is a complete antidote to it; and we could wish that, in every church and meeting in the kingdom, the substance of this writer's judicious reflexions was digested into a series of sermons, that every congregation might fully understand the importance of the great truth, that Jesus is the Christ—the Messiah—the son of God.

**ART. XVI.**—*The young Painter's Maulstick; being a practical Treatise on Perspective; containing Rules and Principles for Delineation on Planes, treated so as to render the Art of Drawing correctly, easy of Attainment even to common Capacities; and entertaining at the same Time, from its Truth and Facility. Founded on the clear mechanical Process of Vignola and Sirigatti; united with the theoretic Principles of the celebrated Dr. Brook Taylor. Addressed to Students in Drawing. By James Malton, Architect and Draftsman. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Carpenter and Co.*

AMONG the various learned and laboured treatises on perspective, one was wanting to teach the art in a perspicuous and familiar manner. The author, son of Mr. Thomas Malton, whose work on this subject is deservedly esteemed, has undertaken the task; and this first part is a promising specimen of his work: one other, comprehending the two parts originally proposed, will complete the whole.

‘My acquaintance with the subject, according to the elegant principles of Brook Taylor, and my having made frequent, but ineffectual, endeavours to teach it on those principles, and make it engaging at the same time, reduced me to the necessity of adopting the method of practice that is followed throughout this work, which is a mixture of the scientific principles of Brook Taylor, with the clear mechanical mode of Vignola and Sirigatti; making a most pleasing, facile, and entertaining, union; the correctness and dispatch of which manner of delineation is admitted by my father, and slightly treated on by him in the appendix to his valuable work.

‘Independent of the want of an agreeable method of procedure, the figures whereon the generality of authors on perspective have employed their rules, have, very feebly, conveyed positive information, being, by much the greater part, ill conceived, and rather disgusting, in lieu of being inviting. The voluminous prolixity of some, obscure brevity of others, trifling littleness of many, and partial application of most of them, have neither rendered the subject interesting, nor given general information. Some have been purely mathematical, others wholly mechanical, and few, or none, seem to have made due reference to the painter. I hope that I shall be found to have proceeded otherwise. By nature I was better gifted with the talent requisite for a painter, than for a mathematician; yet I delighted in the pursuits of both, and was capable at the age of fourteen, to demonstrate any problem in the twelfth book of Euclid, of delineating any regular piece of architecture in perspective, of taking a correct draft from a plaster cast of the human figure, of drawing any of the five orders of architecture, or of copying a landscape of Barratt, or of Gainsborough. This, it will be observed, I advance not with a view of boasting of what I was, or am, capable of performing, but to instance the likelihood there is, that this work



will be found less tediously dry, than those of my predecessors on the same subject.' p. i.

The preface contains a defence of the science, its utility to the painter, and arguments for studying it scientifically. In all these points, Mr. Malton succeeds well; yet his language is somewhat too quaint and affected, and his sentences are, at times, involved unnecessarily. His remarks are, however, clear and judicious. We shall select a passage or two.

'That painter is also greatly mistaken, who imagines that perspective is not equally applicable in the delineation of the human form, as of right lined figures. From a want of it, shameful enormities are committed; foreshortened limbs made too long, a figure extended on the ground, feet or head foremost, in a foreshortened position, not represented its just length, often twice the length it should be, and sometimes thrice, of which I could point out but too many instances in works, not of inferior artists. The portrait painter even, frequently shews his deficiency in perspective, by making, as the professors would say, his heads out of drawing; the off-side of the face larger than the near; one eye higher than the other; the nose not in the middle of the face, when not so in the original; and like instances of want of correctness in the sight: but he must not expect to have the compasses in the eye, who has not long held them in his hand. It may be allowed, that great incorrectness is seldom committed, by an attentive, experienced artist; it may be admitted, that the eye by much practice, and nice observation, may become so correct as to render it little liable to great errors; but one twentieth part of the time, by long practice employed to arrive at such critical discernment, spent in acquiring a competent knowledge of perspective, would make an artist of genius much earlier, and infinitely more, correct and decisive.

'To every painter some knowledge of architecture is absolutely necessary; he cannot produce the auxiliaries of buildings to his pictures without it; and the higher are his aims the more informed should he be in this great aid to his effects. 'Tis lamentable to observe the deficiency manifested in this particular, I will use the words of sir Joshua Reynolds, "in the works of the most considerable artists," being as well applicable to their deficiency shewn in knowledge of architecture as perspective. Their pedestals, their capitals, and bases of pillars, their architraves, imposts, &c. from their total want of professional accuracy, expose them, with concern I have observed it, to the ridicule of the builder's apprentice. The architecture of an historical piece, or subject of a whole length portrait, may not be a first-rate object, nor a second, nor a third-rate consideration; it may be thrown to any distance of importance, at pleasure; all I mean to dwell on is, that it is thought proper to be introduced, then, if introduced at all, though kept down to any possible degree next to obliteration, it should be properly delineated, by possessing the character of the kind of architecture intended to be represented.



‘The French painters, in general, shew a laudable attention to their aiding concomitants, be they in what department they will; a fine instance, among many, is shewn in that truly great performance, the portrait of Lewis XVI. by Callet, where the style and correctness of the architecture, and the truth of the perspective, are a reproach to most British productions of the same nature; which, to be rid of that great trouble, are constantly backed by a curtain, or troubled landscape, or clouded sky, even when the subjects are the portraits of noblemen or senators in their robes, or ladies in drawing-room dresses.’ P. ix.

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‘Many have a notion that perspective, not only merely relates to architectural subjects, but to them simply when they are represented as receding in the picture, and exhibiting in a small space of a plane placed direct before the eye, the appearance of great depth of structure as retiring farther and farther off, particularly in inside subjects; as looking down the aisles of churches, long galleries, and the like; in which cases, the nearer the eye is to being in the plane of the extent looked at, the shorter will be the space required in which the depth of the subject will be to be delineated, and the greater and more sudden the apparent conyergency of horizontal lines. Such delineations appearing to the not well-informed in the subject of delineation, unpleasing pictures, and not being able to reconcile to their minds, what is, apparently, so repugnant to truth, I have heard it observed that such subjects were too much in perspective, when it was only meant to imply, that the point of view was taken too closely to the plane of the building, to have a satisfactory, and pleasing picture of the object. To say any subject is drawn too much in perspective, is tantamount to saying, it is too well, or too naturally, represented,’ P. xi.

The treatise is introduced by some problems and observations on practical geometry, which are useful assistants; and, on examining the work, we find it a clear, judicious, and correct introduction to the science, and to the more laboured treatises on the subject.—We wish much for its completion,

# MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

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## FINANCE....POLITICS.

**ART. 17.**—*Considerations on the Debt on the Civil List. By the Right Hon. George Rose, M. P.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1802.

AFTER a short history of the civil-list from the reign of William the Third, a statement is here given of the debt on the civil-list of the present day, and a table of the aids which have been granted to the sovereign during the last century. From this table, it appears that queen Anne received, in  $12\frac{1}{3}$  years, 9,133,000*l.*—George the First, in thirteen years, 10,150,000*l.*—George the Second, in  $33\frac{1}{3}$  years, 27,122,000*l.*—and George the Third, in 42 years, 38,432,000*l.* Hence, the average of the annual expense of the civil-list is, for queen Anne and George the First, 761,000*l.*—for George the Second, 813,000*l.*—for George the Third, 915,000*l.* Now, according to sir George Shuckburgh's tables, the prices of articles from the year 1700 to 1800, have risen in the proportion of 238 to 562. Consequently, the expense of the civil-list has not, in this period of time, maintained any kind of par in its advance. It is very difficult to bring these matters to a proper estimate; and few persons will be at the trouble of reading, while others are found ready to offer an accurate account of these different expenditures. A generous nation would rather exceed than be within the limits of even a liberal allowance; but, when this is conceded, additional calls upon its generosity are not creditable. We do not mean, however, that there is any person to be censured in this case, except the minister who suffered the debt to accumulate to so enormous a sum as 1,283,000*l.* It should certainly be recollected, that in this sum are included the expenses of the police establishment in Bow-street, amounting to 72,662*l.*; and of the Westminster police, amounting to 33,351*l.*; of law expenses incurred in sixteen years, amounting to 177,050*l.*—for a part of which the numerous prosecutions for seditious practices are made an excuse; and of secret service money for sixteen years, amounting to 579,000*l.*

From the late situation of the writer, much information may naturally be expected in a work of this nature; but the difficulties attending the subject are too well known to be repeated; and the only security which the country could obtain, would be by the enactment of some definite and severe punishment against the minister who should, in future, permit the civil-list to be a quarter in arrear. The account

of the present state of a minister is too curious to be omitted ; and we leave it to the remarks of our readers.

‘ The truth is that a minister of this country is now without any means, even of influence, except an inconsiderable patronage in the disposal of livings, which are not as well known to every man who is in possession of the court register as they are to his most confidential friend. It is not only in the department of the civil list that he is thus restrained, but after the example set by the late chancellor of the exchequer in avoiding all contracts, commission business, and agencies of every sort, no successor will be hardy enough to resort again to such modes of gratifying his friends. During the whole of the late war not a single beneficial contract or commission was given, nor the slightest favour shewn to any individual in that way. The loans too were made in such a manner as to afford just as good a chance of obtaining them to the most inveterate enemy of the minister as to his warmest supporter. What a contrast to former proceedings ! Even the great addition that has unfortunately been made, from necessity, to the public burthens during the war, did not become a source of patronage, for it is a fact not controverted, that the collection and management of taxes to the amount of 8,000,000*l.* a year, from 1792 to 1800, did not add one office in the disposal of the minister ; during that period fifty-two employments in the revenue were created, and fifty-three abolished ; exclusive of eighty-five sinecure employments requiring no residence, suppressed for ever, in value from 100*l.* to 2000*l.* a year each, which were formerly given to the private friends or political connections of the first lord of the treasury. It may not be without its use to observe here that there are very few more than fifty members of the house of commons who hold places or enjoy profits of any sort whatever which can be supposed by the least charitable man living to be capable of influencing their conduct ; we allude to Great Britain only ; perhaps there are nearly as many members on the other hand who are not without an impression on their minds that if they could succeed in removing those who occupy the chief places in administration, they might have a reasonable chance of stepping in to their situations.’ P. 30.

ART. 18.—*Considerations on the late Elections for Westminster and Middlesex ; together with some Facts relating to the House of Correction in Cold Bath Fields.* 8vo. 2*s.* Hatchard. 1802.

The pamphlet is entitled ‘ Considerations on the late Elections for Westminster and Middlesex ;’ but the writer soon discovers his party by an elaborate vindication of the house of correction in Cold-bath-fields. This latter subject has been long before the public ; and we shall not follow the author by unnecessarily dilating upon it. No one, who recollects the report of the committee appointed to examine into this institution, can contend that the managers of it were altogether impeccable : and it is a common practice at our septennial elections, for every candidate to avail himself, as much as possible, of every popular outcry—or, if the author likes it better, *prejudice*—that can assist him in his pursuit. A writer, however, who would examine a



subject with real impartiality would not, like the present investigator, print the most favourable points on one side of the question in Italics, and pass over the opposite as cursorily and with as little notice as possible.

## RELIGION.

ART. 19.—*Remarks on the Doctrine of Justification by Faith: in a Letter to the Rev. John Overton, A. B. Author of a Work, entitled 'The true Churchmen ascertained.'* By Edward Pearson, B. D. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1802.

ART. 20.—*Remarks on the Controversy subsisting, or supposed to subsist, between the Arminian and Calvinistic Ministers of the Church of England: in a second Letter to the Rev. John Overton, A. B. Author of 'The true Churchmen ascertained.'* By Edward Pearson, B. D. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1802.

Mr. Pearson enters the field on the Arminian side of the question; and we with pleasure extract his account of justification; for, though not new, it is compactly drawn up, and may give satisfaction on this intricate subject to many of our readers.

## ‘ DEFINITION.

‘ Justification is the being accounted righteous before God.

## ‘ PROPOSITIONS.

- ‘ 1. The consequence of our being justified at any time during the present life is, that we are admitted into a state of salvation. This, by some divines, is called our first justification.
- ‘ 2. The consequence of our being justified at the last day will be, that we shall be saved, or made partakers of salvation. This, by some divines, is called our last or final justification.
- ‘ 3. The sole meritorious cause of our being justified at any time, and of our being finally saved, is Jesus Christ.
- ‘ 4. The conditions of our being at first justified, or of being admitted into a state of salvation, are repentance and faith.
- ‘ 5. The conditions of our continuing in a state of salvation, and of being finally saved, are faith and good works.
- ‘ 6. The conditions of being restored to a state of salvation, after having fallen away from it, are the same as those, on which we are at first admitted into it, namely, repentance and faith.
- ‘ 7. The means or instrument, by which we are at first admitted into a state of salvation, is the sacrament of baptism.
- ‘ 8. The means or instruments, by which we are continued in a state of salvation, are prayer, the hearing or reading of the Scriptures, and the participation of the sacrament of the Lord's supper; including the assistance of the grace, which is promised to the use of them.’ P. 33.

In the second pamphlet, our author has, very unnecessarily, entered into modern politics, and endeavoured to represent Calvinism as inimical to the British state. The question relates to the Thirty-nine Articles, and may surely be discussed without the examination of its

political tendency on either side. He agrees with us in thinking that the present dissensions in the church require the interference of authority; and proposes certain terms which deserve the consideration of the contending parties.

‘ Perhaps, as the means of settling the dissensions, which prevail, or at least of preventing any mischievous effects from them, it might be expedient, in the present state of the church, to adopt a measure similar to that I have referred to, and to declare, by authority, that it is not the intention of the church of England so to narrow the terms of communion, as individuals, both Arminians and Calvinists, have sometimes been led to imagine. In the mean time, I beg leave to propose, as the conditions of a peace more honourable to the parties, because more voluntary, that the Calvinists, and, so far as they are concerned in them, the Arminians also, should agree to the faithful observance of the following canons:

- ‘ 1. To renounce, as a term of distinction, the title of evangelical.
- ‘ 2. To abstain from all declarations and insinuations, that they alone preach the true doctrines of Scripture and of the church.
- ‘ 3. To avoid all proceedings in practice, which may tend to diminish, in the estimation of the people, the importance of an attention to the established discipline.’ P. 98.

It is very evident, that, if the rulers of the church do not coincide in a speedy determination on these disputed points, the peace of the church will be materially affected.

ART. 21.—*A Sermon preached at the Anniversary Meeting of the Sons of the Clergy, in the Cathedral Church of St. Paul, on Thursday, May 7, 1801. By the Reverend William Lisle Bowles, M. A. &c. To which are added, Lists of the Nobility, Clergy, and Gentry, who have been Stewards for the Feast of the Sons of the Clergy, together with the Names of the Preachers, since the Year 1674, and the Sums collected at the Anniversary Meetings, since the Year 1721. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.*

An establishment of religion is here affirmed to constitute a part of the general course of God’s providence; and the reason why our Saviour did not appoint the form to be adopted in all countries, is declared to be the necessity of some accommodation to climates and different modes of government. The excellence of the establishment in this country, and the conduct of its members, are celebrated with becoming zeal; and thence an appeal is made to the benevolence of the audience in behalf of the orphans of clergymen, supported by this excellent institution. Several of our readers will, we are persuaded, gladly avail themselves of our information, that their subscriptions and benefactions are thankfully received by the treasurer, John Topham, esq. No. 10, Bedford-row, London.

ART. 22.—*A few plain Reasons for the Belief of a Christian. By Thomas Robinson, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.*

Several good and substantial reasons are here adduced, which ought to make an impression on unprejudiced minds; but they have been so often urged without effect, that the writer must not be very

sanguine in his expectations from this pamphlet. He has not, however, added to the weight of his reasons, in the conclusion, by appealing to the names of Bacon, Newton, Milton, Boyle, Locke, and Addison; and then placing his reader in the usual predicament in which a popish priest aims at seating an ignorant protestant—‘Which is entitled to the greatest respect,’ the reader is desired to ask himself, ‘their opinion or mine? Who is the most likely to ascertain the truth, they or I? Nothing surely but the grossest self-delusion can dictate any other answer than the true one.’ Thus, in Spain, then, if a poor man felt inclined to become a protestant, what a number of names would not his priest bring forward of men as distinguished for their abilities as our English worthies, and then putting the same questions to him as our author has done to his readers—but, no—the inquisition would settle the question with still greater ease; and an argument *ad verecundiam* is no proof.

ART. 23.—*Two Sermons preached at Dominica, on the 11th and 13th of April, 1800; and officially noticed by his Majesty's Privy Council in that Island. To which is added, an Appendix, containing Minutes of three Trials which occurred at Roseau in the Spring of the preceding Year; together with Remarks on Strictures on the Issue of those Trials, as well as on the Slave Trade, and the Condition of Slaves in general in our West-Indian Colonies. By the Rev. C. Peters, A. M. &c. 8vo. 3s. Hatchard. 1802.*

To preach on the slave-trade at Liverpool or Bristol, and on the duties of master and slave at Dominica, will do more honour to the preacher's zeal than to his prudence. The mention of humanity, kindness, and reciprocal duties between master and slave, excited, it seems, the utmost indignation in the island; the preacher was, of course, accused of every thing that was evil; and he quitted the spot where atrocities are committed, which seem almost incredible to any one imbued with the common feelings of humanity. The two sermons, which produced such an alarm, are now given to the public; and they are accompanied with narrations of trials and other facts which corroborate the evidence that was brought forward on the same subject before the legislature.

ART. 24.—*Pity upon the Poor: a Sermon, preached the Thirtieth of June, 1801, in St. Mary's Church, Brecon, at the annual Meeting of the Subscribers to the clerical Fund, in that Archdeaconry. By the Archdeacon. 4to. 1s. Hurst.*

This discourse is dedicated to an unknown lady of Hamburg, whose beneficence ought to be celebrated in all the churches—for she lodged the sum of one thousand pounds in the house of Ransom, Morland, and Co. to be distributed, in this kingdom, among clergymen with large families and a small income. The discourse is suited to the occasion on which it was delivered. Its object is to recommend charity, and charity more particularly to the widows and orphans of clergymen. The suggestion, that the strong arm of the legislature should interfere to appropriate a portion of the annual income of every benefice to the maintenance of the widows and or-



phans of clergymen, deserves consideration ; but we should never resort to such a step, excepting in a very strong case of necessity.

ART. 25.—*The Life of Moses; designed for the Amusement and Instruction of Youth. By a Lady. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Button and Son. 1802.*

‘Ye judicious critics! before whose maturer judgement the juvenile pen trembles to appear, say, will ye be more cruel than Pharaoh? Oh! rather imitate the gentle Thermuthis, and protect the infant Moses. It is a first attempt. Destroy not the bud, though tender. It may, when improving time shall have expanded the opening blossom, prove a valuable flower.’ P. iv.

The young lady who has composed this work is in adversity, and having ‘scarcely yet entered her twenty-second year, has drunk deep of the fountain of human affliction.’

#### MEDICINE, &c.

ART. 26.—*A Treatise on Brown's System of Medicine. Translated from the German of H. C. Pfaff, M. D. &c. By John Richardson, Author of 'Thoughts on Education.' 8vo. 2s. 6d. Jones. 1802.*

The professor seems, on the whole, partial to Brown's system; but he chiefly confines his admiration to the principles. He cannot avoid perceiving that they are inapplicable to the various exigencies of practice. In this estimate, however, of the principles, he does not pay, we think, sufficient attention to the doctrine of accumulated and exhausted irritability; but he urges, with great force, Brown's inattention to the state of the body as susceptible of irritation, and the limitation of his views to the causes only. On the whole, we find much good sense and clear discrimination in the work before us, which, nevertheless, as we have already said, is still too partial.

ART. 27.—*Some Experiments and Observations on Sig. Volta's Electrical Pile, clearly elucidating all the Phenomena. Also Observations on Dr. Herschel's Paper, on Light and Heat; with other Remarks. By Robert Harrington, M. D. 8vo. 3s. Cadell and Davies. 1801.*

We have already observed that Dr. Harrington's arguments and experiments were above our comprehension; and we were fearful of offering an opinion on what we did not understand. We are not quite so much in the dark respecting the present work. We clearly see the source of some errors; but the whole is too much connected with his own peculiar doctrines, which are certainly unfounded, to induce us to enlarge on the subject. Signor Volta's pile is chiefly the vehicle to introduce the remarks in opposition to the antiphlogistic theory; for, as the Galvanic fluid is electrical, and the latter formed of an acid and fire which with water produces oxygen gas, we are at once brought back to the former subject. We think the punishment which Dr. Harrington would inflict on us for what we regard as a venial crime—not possessing sufficient capacity to compre-

hend his wonderful discoveries—somewhat too severe. If swallowing a putrid egg daily will enlighten the mind, we would advise him to repair immediately to Egypt, where, from the contents of an overheated oven, he may perhaps become a convert, in turn, to the *anti-phlogistic* system.

### EDUCATION.

ART. 28.—*Moral Education the one Thing needful. Briefly recommended in Four Letters to a Friend. By Thomas Simons. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1802.*

‘Train up a child in the way in which he should go,’ is an old maxim derived from the best authority; and the numerous and lamentable instances that result from inattention to it, in the present day, is a convincing proof of its excellence. We highly commend the object which this writer had in view, and the manner in which he has treated the subject, which may be read by every parent with great advantage. Four letters cannot occupy too much of the time even of a fine lady who is a mother: but a cursory perusal is not sufficient; let them be repeatedly adverted to, and the reader will be still more sensible of the justice of many of the observations they contain; and perhaps may have the courage to put them into practice, and make herself and her children happy. The writer has the good sense not to condemn, like some modern enthusiasts, our classic authors to oblivion; he shows their uses, and guards only against their abuse. He introduces instances of characters with great judgement, and keeps steadily in view ‘the one thing needful,’ both in the care of children and in watchfulness over our own hearts; so that they may be purified from evil passions, and constitute a fair and consistent character—a character indeed which is not to cease with the transitory concerns of life. His fears for the next generation, from the evidently too great attention to trifles in the present, are certainly not without foundation. The only way to prevent their evil effect is to be strictly attentive to children from their earliest education, and to guard against those vices in the bloom of life, which unnerve both body and mind, before they attain an age to enter upon the difficulties which must in this world be encountered by every one.

ART. 29.—*Elements of English Grammar: or a new System of Grammatical Instruction for the Use of Schools and Academies. By John Dalton, Teacher of the Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, &c. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Bound. Richardsons. 1801.*

We have not refrained from noticing this little treatise on English grammar before, from any disapprobation of its contents; but by some accident we had entirely overlooked it. Such teachers as may be disposed to use it, will very frequently find it an able method of instructing their pupils *argumentatively*; and such pupils as happen to fall into the hands of judicious teachers, who will take the pains to compare our author's new terms and distinctions with those al-

ready in use, will be considerably benefited by the comparison. Mr. Dalton has, however, in more places than one, laid himself open to a censure justly due to a number of grammarians—the *affectation of appearing new*. If a grammar be placed in the hands of a man of learning, of what consequence is it whether tenses be denominated *beginning past*, *middle past*, and *ending past*; or *definite* and *indefinite*, *preterperfect* and *preterpluperfect*? for he knows the meaning and etymology of the one set of terms as well as of the other. Or if it be alleged that this treatise is for the use of children, we must then adduce, as a great objection, that Mr. Dalton's verb is to the full as long and as tiresome as the verb of any former writer on English grammar. In many instances, this little book deserves great commendation, for the propriety of the author's observations, and always for the care he seems to have bestowed on the subject before him: but his 'remarks on the conjunctive mood of some grammarians, we cannot praise; for we see no reason why the termination of the conjunctive may not differ from the indicative termination, as well in English as in the languages of other ancient and modern nations.

ART. 30.—*A New History of Great Britain; from the Invasion of Julius Caesar to the present Time: exhibiting to the Minds of Youth a Variety of instructive and pleasing Information, and some Particulars now first adapted to the Capacities of young People of both Sexes: the whole calculated to operate as moral Lessons, while it contains every leading Trait of the History of England. On a Plan nearly similar to that of Dr. Henry. By the Rev. John Adams, A. M. Author of Lectiones Selectæ, &c. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Bound. Longman and Rees. 1802.*

This history of England is a very proper one for children. The quarrels of kings, and the plunder of their subjects, which occupy too much room in most books of this nature, are here but sparingly treated. The volume is filled with more instructive and entertaining matter.

## POETRY.

ART. 31.—*The Tears of Hibernia! dispelled by the Union. A Poem. By William Thomas Fitz Gerald, Esq. 4to. 1s. Stockdale. 1802.*

'The tempest howl'd—deep thunder roll'd along,  
Which scar'd the timid, and which aw'd the strong;  
The mountain torrent, rushing to the main,  
The raging ocean back propell'd again.'— p. 5.

*Query.* Whether did the torrent propel the ocean, or the ocean propel the torrent?—But we must give our readers the whole exordium:

— 'And yet than elemental war more dire,  
Accursed Anarchy's consuming fire!  
While fiends exulted o'er the carnag'd plain,  
And Heav'n offended pour'd its wrath in vain;



Hibernia on the Giant's Causeway stood,  
And view'd, from far, her vales manur'd with blood :  
Shock'd at the sight her tears began to flow,  
In all the anguish of maternal woe.' P. 5.

Mr. Fitz Gerald should be contented with reciting his verses after the annual dinner of the Literary Society. We, who read them in the morning, expect syntax at least.

ART. 32.—*Charley's Disappointment, an Elegy: occasioned by Mr. Pitt's late Resignation.* [The Scene lies at St. Ann's Hill, in the County of Surry.] Dedicated to all seceding Patriots. 8vo. 3d. Hatchard. 1801.

Foolish as is the title of this half-sheet, the contents are still more so. It is advertised to be sold wholesale for distribution, like the trash of the Methodist manufactory.

ART. 33.—*The Infidel and Christian Philosophers: or, the last Hours of Voltaire and Addison contrasted. A Poem.* 4to. 1s. Vernor and Hood. 1802.

'Whatever opinion those persons who honour this performance with a perusal, may entertain of its execution, the author is induced to hope, that the sentiments he has endeavoured to inculcate will at least secure him from the censure, if they cannot ensure him the applause, of all whose approbation he is most solicitous to obtain.' P. 5.

The opening of this poem is spirited.

'While daring sceptics, swoln with haughty pride,  
The pious Christian's humble hopes deride,  
And vainly strive with meretricious art,  
To root each moral virtue from the heart;  
To sap those doctrines by a Saviour given;  
(The rich spontaneous boon of gracious heav'n,)  
In expectation conscience calm to keep  
"With the sad solace of eternal sleep;"  
How just to mark, when fail the springs of life,  
And nature sinks beneath th' unequal strife;  
When earth's delusive scenes no more delight,  
But all eternity appears in sight,  
What diff'rent feelings in that hour of woe,  
The dying sceptic and the Christian know!

'See where, encircled by his atheist train,  
A wretched prey to agonizing pain,  
Upon his death-bed lies, in deep despair,  
The celebrated, witty, gay Voltaire!  
A man to each succeeding sceptic dear;  
Whose arts they follow, and whose name revere!  
He who first gave their darling project birth,  
Of rooting out religion from the earth;

And, vain of praise by fawning flatt'ers giv'n,  
 Dar'd hurl defiance in the face of heav'n.  
 With specious talents curs'd, in quest of fame,  
 Lur'd by th' attraction of a guilty name,  
 He those endowments 'gainst the donor turn'd;  
 And with infuriate zeal and ardour burn'd,  
 Each vestige of the Gospel to efface,  
 And crush the Saviour of the human race.  
 Long time, a stranger to remorse or fear,  
 He ran uncheck'd his blasphemous career;  
 Beyond conception saw his schemes succeed,  
 And inly triumph'd in the impious deed.  
 Ev'n then, when, near the summit of desire,  
 He fear'd with joy excessive to expire,  
 Grown grey with age, and harden'd in his crimes,  
 (Example terrible to future times!)  
 Sudden he sinks beneath th' avenging rod  
 Of a much injur'd long-forbearing God.  
 The season destin'd for probation fled,  
 Condemn'd to feel, ere number'd with the dead,  
 (Immers'd in anguish, hopeless of a cure)  
 Some portion of those pains the damn'd endure.' P. 7.

These are strong and manly lines. We are surprised to see the author quote verses that ought to be familiar to every one, and need no quotation whatever.

ART. 34.—*Elegy to the Memory of the late Duke of Bedford: written on the Evening of his Interment. By Mrs. Opie. 4to. 1s. Longman and Rees. 1802.*

This is the most respectable tribute that has yet been offered to the memory of one so universally and deservedly lamented. We copy the concluding lines.

' But ye who, wrapt in fruitless grief, deplore  
 The honoured worth that lives for you no more,  
 Wake from your trance, your Russell's tomb forgo;  
 Hark! consolation whispers peace to woe.  
 See, as you search life's varying scenes around,  
 Firm to the last in good how few are found!  
 Those who in youth appeared the boasts of fame,  
 In age too often sink, the prey of shame;  
 Some bright temptation, stronger than the rest,  
 Has lured to vice the long-resisting breast,  
 The laurels blighted active virtue won,  
 And all the labours of a life undone;  
 All noble pride, all pure ambition lost,  
 Like spring's fair blossoms in one night of frost:—  
 Then joy to think, as forms in amber found  
 Nor touch can change, nor powerful pressure wound,  
 So Bedford's fame can now no injury feel,—  
 It rests secured by death's eternal seal.

From life's rough sea escaped, he gains the shore  
 Where vice allures and censure threats no more ;  
 No rainbow splendours his, that fade away,—  
 His, the long lustre of a polar day ;  
 To him on earth assured a deathless crown,  
 And his the glories of the world unknown !—  
 Think, too, while here the real patriot dwells,  
 His length of life by deeds, not years, he tells ;—  
 Think, of his worth if endless proofs we meet,  
 However small, the circle is complete ;  
 Think, thus distinguished by a nation's praise,  
 Bedford in youth expires, the full of days.' P. 15.

ART. 35.—*An Elegy, on his Grace Francis, the late Duke of Bedford.*  
*By Thomas Rodd. 4to. 1s. Ridgeway. 1802.*

' What form is that, which sadly o'er yon bier  
 Her drooping head in speechless woe reclines,  
 From her full eye descends the frequent tear,  
 She sighs, she mourns, and some great loss repines ?' P. 1.

These rhymes are of common magazine manufacture.

ART. 36.—*Elegy to the Memory of Francis late Duke of Bedford.* By  
*H. Steers, Gent. 4to. 6d. No Publisher's Name. 1802.*

' And you the tenants of his hills and vales,  
 What heartfelt sorrow at your breast prevails ?  
 Fast flow your griefs for him whose guiding hand  
 Inform'd your labours and improv'd the land.

' Who for your grain produc'd the choicest seed,  
 Your bees selected of the stateliest breed,  
 Your sheep new cloth'd, and with a richer fleece,  
 Than that which once engag'd the toils of Greece.

' No glitt'ring gems that India's clime can boast,  
 Not all the treasures of the pearly coast,  
 Nor flaming gold that Chili's earth contains,  
 Are worth one harvest of your fruitful plains.

' These are the arts that raise a country's name  
 Assist it's commerce and extend it's fame :  
 Such were his off'rings, claim not these a sigh ?  
 And with their donor shall his mem'ry die ?

' His social manners, his distinguish'd mind,  
 Constant benevolence, and taste refin'd,  
 Demand your tears ; indulge them freely then,  
 To mourn the best of landlords and of men.' P. 6.

Appropriate praise in indifferent poetry.

ART. 37.—*A Translation of Geddes's Ode to Peace.* By John Ring.  
*4to. 1s. 6d. Carpenters. 1802.*

Mr. Ring's ' long and intimate acquaintance with the author'



must have been the motive which influenced him to translate this ode: for the poem itself is scarcely entitled to the trouble.

‘ With voice united, with united soul,  
Drink Bonaparte’s health, and drain the bowl:  
Champion of peace! what praise to thee belongs,  
Thou great avenger of thy country’s wrongs!

‘ At thy command, the sound of war is o’er,  
“ The brazen trumpet kindles rage no more;”  
At thy command, fierce foes, relenting, plight  
Their mutual faith, and hostile hands unite.

‘ Thy league, the work of one short month, shall bind  
The jarring nations, and cement mankind:  
On this firm basis found thy lasting fame,  
Peace-maker of the world—thy glorious name.’ P. 13.

This panegyric is somewhat premature. History will not record the Corsican as the peace-maker of his day.

### DRAMA.

ART. 38.—*A Tale of Mystery, a Melo-Drame: as performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Thomas Holcroft. 8vo. 2s. Phillips. 1802.*

It will not be expected, it cannot indeed be expected by the author himself, that this drama should receive much commendation when judged before a literary tribunal. It is by him denominated a *melo-drame* [we suppose from *μελος*, *carmen*,], that is, in the vernacular tongue, a musical entertainment. As a mixture of farce and pantomime, it is admirably calculated for amusement during representation; but in the closet, if it be ‘weighed in the balance, it will be found wanting.’—Mr. Holcroft gratefully remembers his obligation to a French piece, from which a principal part of it is borrowed; and offers, on the altar of esteem, a dedication to the abilities of his friend Clementi.

ART. 39.—*The Merchant of Venice, a Comedy, altered from Shakespeare, as it was acted at Reading School, in October, 1802, for the Benefit of the Literary Fund. 8vo. 2s. Pridden. 1802.*

Dr. Valpy seems to be, very unreasonably, displeased with us for having declared our sentiments freely. In our criticisms on his former dramas, we have ceded to him the right of altering the plays of any authors in what manner he pleases, provided he will allow us to consider them as designed only for school-boys; but this is not enough; we must say, unqualifiedly, that he is able to amend Shakespeare. With the greatest deference and respect for his classic talents, we certainly cannot compliment him so highly as a poet: nay, we have our doubts, from the lines which he has substituted in the reformed passages, whether, if he should favour the world with a drama of his own, we might be justified in bestowing on it un-

mixed commendation. The doctor says that, 'in King John, in Henry IV, in Henry VI, and in the present play, it has been his principal object to retain, as far as he thought it consistent with grammatical correctness and moral delicacy, the language of Shakspeare.' The circumstance of the rings in the fifth act of the present play is assuredly not very decently related; and therefore we think the editor both prudent and praise-worthy in keeping it out of the hands and heads of his scholars: but he certainly should remember that the passage which we found fault with was of a different nature—it was the speech of Constance, containing, in the original, no less chastity, and a hundred times more energy, than in his emendation. We allow that Dryden and Tate, Cibber, Colman, and Garrick, have exercised the same liberty of altering Shakspeare: and we also allow, that, like the present editor, they frequently merited grateful thanks; for they kept offensive words, during representation, from wounding the feelings of our wives and daughters. But what man of mature age and classic taste ever took up their mutilations in his study, when he could lay his hand on the original author? They enjoy in quiet the praise due to them for such corrections as are confined to the manager's book; but for those which are publicly printed as a comment on the abilities of the parent poet, they must endure, like Dr. Valpy, a comparison, from literary criticism, between the talents of Shakspeare and their own. We praised Henry VI, as a single play intended for the use of a private seminary, and altered, as we conceived, with due deference to a fame like Shakspeare's; but when a second play was produced, and an unexceptionable passage (nay a beautiful one) expunged; and when, in a preface to a third, this step was vindicated on a surmise that the poet was asleep when he wrote it, it was surely not out of season in a critical publication to condemn it.

## NOVELS, &amp;c.

ART. 40.—*The Village Romance.* By Jane Elson, Author of the *Romance of the Castle, &c.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Lane. 1802.

The story of this novel is the adventures of a couple of female orphans. The kindness of Mrs. Dalbenny, who adopts them; the adversities to which they are exposed in the course of the narrative, and their connubial happiness, which terminates it, are very properly depicted; and will serve as a stimulus to virtue, and a dissuasive from vice, likely to amend the hearts of those who would not, most probably, go to deeper sources for improvement or instruction.

ART. 41.—*The Castle of Caithness: a Romance of the thirteenth Century.* By F. H. P. 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Lane. 1802.

The Castle of Caithness is the 'shadow of a shade':—in it are contained more *ghosts* and *dreams of ghosts*, than even the thirteenth century could have borne.

ART. 42.—*The Soldier of Dierenstein; or, Love and Mercy. An Austrian Story.* By H. S. H. the M. of A——. 8vo. 3s. 6d. White. 1802.

This is a simple little narrative deserving, in itself, neither praise nor censure, but prefaced with so strange a dedication that it is impossible not to quote it. What power any eagle has to defend a book from the critics, or how a *German* eagle should have acquired taste or abilities for English literature, we must leave our readers to puzzle out by themselves; to us the relation between them is totally unknown.

—— ‘spissis noctis se condidit umbris.’ VIRGIL.

‘*To the Austrian Eagle.*

‘O thou! who placed by the poets of old in precedency among the winged race, as the emperor is among sovereigns. Generous bird! who long and oft extended thy expanded wing to shelter a dove flying from birds of prey. Accept the following romance as a small tribute of gratitude:—Employ thy tremendous beak and talons against the critics that would tear it to pieces. So shall each Austrian hero emulate the Soldier of Dierenstein;—the Danube’s beautiful shores be the Muse’s favourite haunt; and the eagle still be the favourite bird of Jove.’ P. 3.

#### CORRESPONDENCE.

WE receive, with gratitude, the information from Wakefield of the disgust occasioned, in that part of the kingdom, by our observations on many different works relating to the Cow-Pox. Such observations come only from a REAL FRIEND.

We can merely explain to our friends at large the progress of our opinions, and wish to be spoken of ‘as we are.’ When the first publication of Dr. Jenner appeared, we hesitated, and for the reasons we alleged. It was positively asserted that the cow-pox would preserve those subjected to it from the small-pox, and not from a repetition of the same disease. This we pronounced to be an absurdity; and *we find it not true*. We were told of its origin from the grease of horses. This, perhaps, disgusted the feelings rather than the understanding, and we considered the opinion to be ridiculous, as the grease was accidental, the cow-pox epidemic. *This, also, is unfounded*. In the account of the symptoms, we discovered nothing striking or distinguishing: they were the mere general appearances of extraneous matter received at the extremity affected. This, too, is found to be an *erroneous representation*. At the same time, instances poured upon us of small-pox occurring after the cow-pox, of convulsions, eruptions, and phagedænic ulcers; the latter admitted even by Dr. Jenner, occurring on, or subsequent to, the attack of cow-pox fever. These, too, were misrepresentations from *accident or error*. What then should be the conduct of those from whom a tone to the public opinion is expected? To doubt—to hesitate—perhaps to



disbelieve. This, we are sure, was our path ; and we hesitate not to say that we walked in it. Yet, after the first publication by Dr. Jenner, we gave the full force of every fact, and dwelt, with peculiar care, upon the points either imperfectly supported, or which required notice. Were we then inimical to the practice ? We *think* not ; and we have had the thanks of the first authorities in philosophy and medicine for our hesitation, professing that it has really assisted the practice more than the eager acquiescence of its most sanguine friends.

There is one circumstance to which, however, we must plead guilty. We have denied Dr. Jenner the merit of an extraordinary discovery, and have laughed at the exaggerated praises of injudicious admirers, of zealous partisans. We have, nevertheless, offered our reasons at length in a late number \*, and need not repeat them. If not sufficient, we request our readers will detract so much from their good opinion of our judgement, as this failure may merit : we confide in their candour, that they will detract no more. On the whole, we distrusted the practice, for reasons that must have been fatal to it, had they not been clearly explained : we should have betrayed our duty, had we not noticed them : they might not have been explained, had they not been pointed out.

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‘ WE are much obliged to Y. Z. for his friendly caution ; but we should never trust a *professed* enemy to review any work ; and he may be positively certain that the *Theban bard* never wrote a line in the articles alluded to—we mean the review of Mr. Gifford’s *Juvenal*. We are equally certain that he never saw a line of any article of the entire criticism before it was published, and cannot even guess at its author. The reasons why we disapproved of this version are before the public ; and they will decide on their force and their propriety. Every admirer of Juvenal will at once see that, in no part, is the *manner* of the author preserved. We are obliged to Y. Z. for the remark, that the source of many of the faulty rhymes, which he admits are numerous, may be discovered in the Devonshire pronunciation—*Quo semel est inbuta, &c.*’

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OUR readers may be assured the OXFORD EDITION OF HOMER will be noticed in the Review for JANUARY.

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WE have to announce the receipt of ZOEGA’s splendid work *De Origine et Usu Obeliscorum*—the *third* number of MILLIN’s *Monumens Antiques*—AKERBLAD’s *Inscriptionis Phœnicia Oxoniensis nova Interpretatio* ; HIS *Lettre sur l’Inscription Egyptienne de ROSETTE*, containing an *alphabet* (of which a *fac-simile* will be given), thence taken, of the *ancient Egyptian language* ; and MONTUCLA’s *History of the Mathematics*, Vols. III. and IV. These, with other interesting communications from abroad, will be the subjects of articles in our next APPENDIX, which will be published on the first of February, 1803.

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\* See our account of ‘ Pearson’s Examination of the Report,’ p. 196.

APPENDIX  
TO  
THE THIRTY-SIXTH VOLUME  
OF THE  
NEW ARRANGEMENT  
OF THE  
CRITICAL REVIEW.

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ART. I.—*Histoire des Mathématiques, &c.*

*A History of the Mathematics, in which an Account is given of their Progress to the present Time, of the principal Discoveries in all the Parts of that Science; also the Disputes which have taken place among Mathematicians, with the chief Traits in the Lives of those most celebrated. A new Edition, considerably augmented, and continued to the present Time. By J. E. Montucla. Vols. III. and IV. finished and published by Jerome de Lalande. Paris. 4to. 2l. 2s. Imported by De Boffe. 1802.*

OF the first two volumes of this new and enlarged edition, which brought the history of the mathematics down to the commencement of the eighteenth century, we gave an account in our 28th vol. New Arr. p. 481.

The present two volumes continue the history, from that period, down to the beginning of the nineteenth century. The lamentable death of the excellent author, which occurred the nineteenth of December, 1799, in the seventy-fifth year of his age, left the third volume incomplete, but nearly half printed, and the rest of the copy for both volumes so far finished, as to give to these latter volumes a size and extent even larger than the two former. Their revision, completion, and printing were kindly undertaken by the author's old friend, M. de Lalande, the celebrated French astronomer, who, it must be acknowledged, has discharged his trust with equal ability, accuracy, and dispatch. The two volumes contain upwards of 1600 pages, closely printed, with the addition of the author's life, and are embellished with beautifully engraved portraits both of M. Montucla and of M. de Lalande.

Of these volumes, the general division is as follows: the  
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third consists of four books: the first of which contains the history of pure geometry, and of the different branches of analysis, since the beginning of the eighteenth century; the second recapitulates the progress of optics; the third, the progress of the theory and the analytics of mechanics, or mechanic philosophy, or physics; and the fourth, the common mechanics, or of machines. The fourth volume is occupied by the sciences of astronomy, geography, navigation, music, &c. with some account of the life and writings of the author.

Geometry and the algebraical analysis have been so much mixed and confounded together during the course of the eighteenth century, that it was not easy for the historian to make always a satisfactory distinction and separation; the improvements in the former having chiefly been made through the medium of the latter. Montucla, however, takes the course of first giving the history of the progress of pure geometry, or that which is treated entirely after the manner of the ancients; and then, in the remainder of the first book, besides the various branches of analysis themselves, stating the improvements, by their means, made in the higher or sublime geometry, as well as in series, equations, logarithms, chances, probabilities, annuities, and various other branches of the mathematical sciences, to which the modern analysis has been applied.

The seducing accommodation and brevity of the modern analysis have so engrossed the attention of the mathematicians in all parts of Europe, that very few, comparatively speaking, have given any attention to the improvement of the purest and ancient geometry. After lamenting such want of good taste, which the author justly does on many occasions, he gives due honour to the few writers who have made any improvements in the ancient method of geometry, and then proceeds to speak of the algebraical analysis. This he begins with the general resolution of equations, that important desideratum and master-key, the possession of which would supply the mathematician with all the treasures contained in the finite analysis. Then follow, in order, the theory and properties of algebraic curve lines and curve surfaces, so far as the finite analysis will go.

The history next proceeds to the infinitesimal analysis, in its various stems and branches. And first it treats of the differential calculus, or the doctrine of fluxions and fluents, with an account of the disputes occasioned by it, particularly that between Newton and Leibnitz.

To these articles succeeds the developement of the progress, in the different branches, of the integral calculus, first of the forms that contain only one variable quantity, and then of that which has been called the inverse method of tangents, or the integration of equations including several variables; comprising a



history, extremely curious, of various problems relating to this calculus, which have been agitated among the chief mathematicians of Europe.

Several new branches of analysis having arisen out of the foregoing, the author treats of them to such extent as the nature of his work will permit; such as the calculus of finite differences; that of circular, logarithmic, and imaginary quantities; the methods of limits, of analytic functions, of variations, of partial differentials, of infinite series, of eliminations, of interpolations, of continued fractions, &c. Then follow two separate articles relating to the modern improvements in the theory and the use of logarithms.

Finally, this book is terminated by the application of analysis to the theory of chances, or the calculation of probabilities; explaining the theory, with the application to various questions in economical and political arithmetic.

In treating of the first part of this book, or the few writings after the manner of the pure or ancient geometry, Montucla divides them into classes, according to the different nations in Europe, the Italians, the Germans, the French, and the English; the first and last of whom he justly praises for their good taste in this respect, while he equally blames the other two for the want of it. Among the French, the author finds only De la Hire to commend, whom he justly does for his large work on the conic sections; for his treatise on epicycloids; and for two pieces on the generation of curve lines, inserted in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences. It is hinted, however, that this author carried his opposition to the modern analysis to a culpable degree of obstinacy.

Among the Italians, Montucla finds several writers entitled to commendation in this branch; as Viviani, for his Divination on the solid Loci of Aristæus; Guido Grandi, for his Demonstration of Huygens's Theorems on the Logistic or Logarithmic Curve; for his geometric Roses in the Philosophical Transactions (An. 1723) and elsewhere; for his 'Voile des Camaldules,' being a portion of the conic surface which is perfectly quadrable; for his 'Quadratura Circuli et Hyperbolæ per Infinitas Parabolas;' and for his dissertation 'De Infinitis Infinitorum et infinite Parvorum Ordinibus:' Lorenzini, for his 'Exercitatio Geometrica,' concerning the conic sections and their solids: Intieri, for 'Apollonius et Serenus promoti:' Perelli; and Giannini, for his treatise 'De Sectione Determinata;' also Torelli, for his Collection of the Works of Archimedes, lately printed at Oxford.

Among the English writers in this branch of science, Montucla mentions, with becoming terms of approbation, the following; viz. David Gregory, for his edition of the whole works of Euclid; and Dr. Halley, for that of Apollonius; as well as for his

two treatises 'De Sectione Rationis,' and 'De Sectione Spatii;' Keil, Cunn, and Simson, for their editions of the Elements of Euclid, and of different parts of Apollonius; and, he might have added, the edition of the Conic Sections of the latter Mac-laurin; Mat. Stewart, for his Physical Tracts relating to the distance of the sun; and, he might have adjoined, for his General Theorems, and his 'Propositiones Geometricæ,' &c.; Dr. Horsley, for several geometrical problems in the Philosophical Transactions resolved with great elegance; and for his treatise of Apollonius 'De Inclinationibus,' which Montucla characterises as being perfectly after the style and language of that ancient geometrician; Mr. Lawson, for his Books of Apollonius on Tangencies; and, lastly, Dr. Hutton, for his Elements on Conic Sections, &c., which our author describes as a model of precision and perspicuity;—*un modèle de précision et de clarté.*

The Germans, like the French, more generally addicted to calculations, furnish but few examples of taste for the ancient geometry. Not but that such men as Bernoulli, Euler, Lambert, when occasion required, could express themselves with sufficient elegance; but they have not cultivated it like the Italians and the English. On this occasion, however, Montucla mentions Castillon of Berlin, on account chiefly of some problems of his in the memoirs of that academy; and Camerer, for his restoration of Apollonius's Tangencies.

Montucla here takes occasion to mention a new classification of the science, called *descriptive geometry*, being that which is chiefly employed on the lines formed by the intersection of surfaces which penetrate or cut each other, such as the surfaces of cylinders, cones, spheres, &c. whence there often result curve lines having a double curvature. This branch is chiefly useful in architecture, and has been most cultivated by Messrs. Frezier, Monge, and La Croix.

He concludes this article, on pure geometry, by the notice of another division, called the *geometry of the compasses*, invented by the abbé Mascheroni, by which a number of problems in common practical geometry are effected with a pair of compasses only, without even the assistance of a common straight ruler.

Montucla now hastens to the history of analysis, and first to the resolution of finite equations, which, if complete and general, would effect the resolution of every problem whatever that can be reduced to such equations. Here, however, he laments that although nearly three centuries have now boasted the united efforts of the first talents and intense study, they have added little or nothing towards this object, while equations of the third and fourth degree were resolved by Tartalea, Cardan, and Ferrari. After remarking that no rules have yet been discovered for the general and perfect solution of any higher equations, the his-



torian adverts to the approximating rules for the roots of such equations in numbers, particularly by Vieta, Harriot, Oughtred, Renaldini, &c., by methods which were similar to the manner of extracting the like roots out of any given absolute number. In doing this, however, he ascribes, as usual, some discoveries to his favourite Vieta, which were due to former authors; as, for instance, that discovery of the fact, that the last or absolute known term in an equation is equal to the continual product of the roots of the equation, and that therefore the roots are to be found among the divisors of that term—a fact which was taught by Peletarius about half a century before. But, because it may often be very troublesome to try all the factors or divisors of the absolute term, to find if any of them will make both sides of the equation equal, methods have been invented by several persons to reduce the number of the trials to a very few, either by determining the limits within which the roots are comprised, or by other means. The first of these was M. de Beaune, after whom came Schooten, Bartholin, Newton, Maclaurin, Wessenaar, de Lagny, Lagrange, &c. In detailing these methods, the nature and the number of the roots are explained, particularly the imaginary roots, which are also illustrated by an application to curve lines.

In further pursuing the same subject, the historian adverts to the attempts that have been made to dissolve or decompose the higher equations, by resolving them into their component factors. Tartalea and Cardan had resolved cubic equations by means of a sixth power, which reduces them to a quadratic. Ferrari resolved biquadratics by depressing them to cubics; afterwards Mr. Simson, and after him again Dr. Waring, did the same thing, nearly in the same manner; and Descartes resolved the same into two quadratics in a different way, which led him to an equation of the sixth power, but depressible to a cubic. The biquadratics were also resolved by Euler, by means of a cubic equation, but in a manner different from all the former. It was next attempted to resolve all the other higher equations above the biquadratic, either by depressing them one degree below, by supposing them compounded of such lower degree and a simple equation, or else of two other factors, the indices of which make up the index of the proposed equation: but, unfortunately, none of these methods can succeed; the former requiring the solution of an equation of the very same degree as the given one, and the latter leading to a final equation much higher still. The writers who have chiefly laboured on this object have been Le Seur and Euler; the last of whom has also shown that every equation of an even degree can be divided into rational factors of the second degree. The same author evinced moreover this general and curious fact re-



specting the form of the roots of equations; *viz.* that every equation, of whatever degree, which wants its second term, has its roots expressed by a number of terms which is one less than the height of the equation; and that each of those terms is a radical of the same degree as the equation itself. Thus, the roots of the equation  $x^2 + a = 0$ , are of this form  $\sqrt{p}$ ; those of the equation  $x^3 + ax + b = 0$ , of this form  $\sqrt[3]{p} + \sqrt[3]{q}$ ; those of the equation  $x^4 + ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ , of this form  $\sqrt[4]{p} + \sqrt[4]{q} + \sqrt[4]{r}$ ; those of the equation  $x^5 + ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d = 0$ , of this form  $\sqrt[5]{p} + \sqrt[5]{q} + \sqrt[5]{r} + \sqrt[5]{s}$ ; and so on; and that it is in a manner similar to this that Waring attempts the solution of equations by assuming  $x = a\sqrt[n]{p} + b\sqrt[n]{p^2} + c\sqrt[n]{p^3}$ , &c.; for a root of the equation  $x^n + px^{n-1} + qx^{n-2} + rx^{n-3}$ , &c. Other methods, for the complete resolution of equations, are also noticed by different analysts, as Marguerie, Vandermonde, Lagrange, Demoivre, Bezout, &c.; concluding with a discouraging observation of Lagrange, 'that it is very doubtful whether any of those methods will ever give the complete solution, even of an equation of the fifth degree, and still much more, of the higher orders; and that this uncertainty, joined to the great length of the requisite calculations, is enough to frighten the most intrepid calculators from encountering them.' Ought we then utterly to despair of the solution of this problem? Has nature here put an absolute bar, as, continued Leibnitz, she has done with regard to the art of rising and moving through the air? But Leibnitz was mistaken in this latter assertion, as events have proved; which may give occasion to suspect that he may perhaps be mistaken also in pronouncing that the general resolution of equations is impossible. Lagrange indeed thinks, if this be not the case, that at least the resolution depends on some function of the roots, or manner of expressing them, different from all those that have been hitherto employed or tried.

In the next article, Montucla describes or enumerates the various methods that have been invented for resolving equations by approximation, by different authors—as Newton, Halley, Raphson, De Lagny, the Bernouillis, Simpson, Euler, Courtyvion, Kæstner, Lagrange, &c.

A neat account is next given of algebraic or geometric curves. After mentioning those of the ancients; *viz.* the conic sections, and some particular curves, as the conchoid, cissoid, quadratrix, spirals, &c. to which they were restricted by the want of algebra, he descends to the moderns, among whom he first mentions Descartes, who opened the way to this branch, by his method of applying algebraic equations to express and describe curve lines, by means of the properties of their co-ordinates. The historian is then soon conducted to Newton, who

first entered into the general consideration of curve lines, particularly in his enumeration of the lines of the third order. In this place, Montucla falls into a small inaccuracy or irregularity, in substituting the word *curve* for *line*, when speaking of the number of the order, by which he considers Newton's lines as *curves* of the third order, and the conic sections as *curves* of the second; whereas, in fact, the conic sections are only *curves* of the first order, though they are *lines* of the second; and Newton's lines are *curves* of the second order, or *lines* of the third, the first order of lines being the right line only, and Newton's orders are those of *lines*, of which the right line is the first, being the third of lines, though only the second of curves. In addition to the seventy-two species of the lines of the third order, Montucla mentions the discovery of six other new species, making seventy-eight in all, of which, he says, two were discovered by Stirling, and four by De Gua; but the fact is, that Stirling discovered four, and the other two were also discovered by Nic. Bernouilli, and Mr. Stone; pretensions being moreover made to the discovery of other new species, by other mathematicians. The names of some other great authors are mentioned, as improvers of this branch of science; as Stirling, Euler, De Gua, Rolle, Nicole, Murdock, Jacquier, Sejour, Godin, &c. In which list we observe the omission of Maclaurin's '*Descriptio Linearum Curvarum*,' in quarto, 1720; also of Brackenridge's '*Exercitatio Geometrica de Descriptione Linearum Curvarum*;' and the name of Stone, who employed much labour on the same subject, and who informs us that he had constructed several hundred lines of the fourth order alone.

In the next article, the historian describes the nature and properties of curves, and how to derive the knowledge of them from the form and transformations of the equations by which they are defined; such as the number of points in which they may be cut by a right-line; their double, triple, and multiple points; their tangents and asymptotes; their points of inflexion, or of contrary flexure; their infinite branches or legs, whether hyperbolic or parabolic; their centres, diameters, &c. &c. And in the ensuing article is introduced the organic description of curves, by the angular motion of lines; the theory of which was first delivered in a summary way by Newton, and further promoted and improved by Maclaurin and Brackenridge.

To the preceding account of the theory of curve lines described on a plain surface, naturally succeeds that of curve surfaces themselves; which are, indeed, of a similar nature to the former, being in like manner expressed and defined by an algebraic equation; but with this difference, that as curve *lines* are expressed by an equation including two indeterminate quanti-



ties, or *two* co-ordinates, so curve *surfaces* are defined by an equation involving *three* indeterminates, denoting three co-ordinates. The historian here treats of the geometry of these curve surfaces; the manner of expressing their nature algebraically; of their sections, or the curves resulting from cutting them by a plane; of their tangents or touching planes; of their maxima and minima; curves of a double curvature; of curve surfaces describable on a plane, or capable of being stretched or spread out on a plane; &c. &c. In most of these circumstances, the curve surfaces have similar properties, and are treated in a similar manner with those of curve lines. The principal writers here cited, on this branch, are, Perseus, Cittiçus, Pitot, Herman, Wallis, Tinceau, Euler, Clairaut, Monge, &c.

After having thus detailed, at considerable length, the improvements in the different branches of finite analysis, the historian naturally passes to those of differentials and integrals, or fluxions and fluents. These he introduces with some observations on the famous dispute concerning the invention of this science, between Newton and Leibnitz, or rather between their partisans. Montucla gives here only a very short abstract of this dispute, which is indeed very well and generally known. In his remarks and decisions on the whole, though he allows the priority of invention to Newton, he yet thinks that Leibnitz invented it also; and though he affects an air of impartiality in relating some particulars, and in drawing his conclusions, it is impossible to avoid perceiving that he embraces every opportunity of bringing into view all the circumstances that may be in favour of Leibnitz, and of making the most powerful representations of them.

The account of the disputes concerning the invention of the doctrine of fluxions is followed by that of the objections made against the truth and accuracy of it, chiefly by MM. Rolle and Galois in France, and Dr. Berkley, bishop of Cloyne; and of the able and effectual defence of that science by Varignon, Saurin, Smith, Wilson, Robins, and Maclaurin.

In the use of the doctrine of fluxions in the theory of curves, which next follows, Montucla shows how easily and naturally it applies to detect the nature and curious properties of those lines; as their maxima and minima; their double, triple, and other multiple points; their tangents, asymptotes, points of inflexion, &c.; after which the history enters on the integral calculus, or the finding of fluents.

In this branch, after remarking that Newton was doubtless the first inventor, or first in possession, of the inverse method of fluxions, he observes that Leibnitz gave the first publication of it, viz. in the Leipsic Acts, an. 1679; from which indication our countryman Craige published, in 1685, his '*Methodus Figurarum Curvilinearum Quadraturas determinandi*;' and in 1693 his



'Treatise de Figurarum Curvilinearum Quadraturis;' though he afterwards changed the method into the Newtonian form, viz. in his 'Treatise de Calculo Fluentium,' printed in 1718. Leibnitz also inserted in the Leipsic Acts, an. 1686, a specimen of the method and application of the integral calculus to curve lines, &c. Soon after whom followed in succession, in the same track, James and John Bernouilli, Da. Gregory, Craige, Demoivre, Fatio, Wallis, Cheyne, Steward, Taylor, Cotes, Stone, Simpson, Landen, Waring, &c. After these latter authors, mostly of the British nation, Montucla next enumerates the other chief improvers of the integral calculus, arranged according to their countries, and characterising the merits of their respective pieces by a masterly intelligence; viz. German and Swiss, Nicholas Bernouilli, son of James, Nicholas and Daniel Bernouilli, sons of John, Herman, and Euler; Italians, viz. Manfredi, J. Riccati, also V. and G. Riccati, his sons, Fagnani, Agnesi; French, viz. Lagrange, Fonceneux, l'Hôpital, Varignon, Carré, Nicole, Saurin, Clairaut, d'Alembert, Fontaine, Bougainville, Leseur, and Jacquier, Cousin, &c.

Montucla then details some particulars of the inventions and address of several of these authors; such as Leibnitz and John Bernouilli in integrating, by resolving into simple factors, certain fluents which involve fractions of these forms,  $\frac{a+bx+cx^2+dx^3}{f+gx+hx^2+ix^3}$ , &c.

$\frac{1}{x^n-1}$ , or  $\frac{1}{a^n+x^n}$ , &c. An explanation is next given of Cotes's method and tables of forms of fluxions and fluents, by means of circular arcs and logarithms; in doing which, the historian remarks, rather unhandsomely, that Cotes might perhaps have derived the idea of his method from the writings of Leibnitz and Bernouilli; and that if these two latter had been Englishmen, and Cotes on the other hand a mathematician on the continent, then England would perhaps have strenuously asserted the claims of the former to the discovery. Montucla does honour to the other discoveries of Cotes; and also adverts to certain problems proposed between John Bernouilli, Brook Taylor, and others, with the controversies between those mathematicians. We then find an account of the improvements by Demoivre, especially in his 'Miscellanea Analytica,' and particularly concerning his extension of Cotes's celebrated theorem to trinomials. Montucla finally concludes this article with some account of the more irregular and complex forms of fluxions, involving logarithms and exponentials, &c.; also such as are related to elliptic and hyperbolic arcs; in which he finds occasion to make honourable mention of the labours and ingenuity of Fagnani, Maclaurin, d'Alembert, Riccati, Landen, Guldini, Simpson, Lambert, &c.

In the next article, our historian enters on the inverse method

of tangents, or the integration of forms containing several variable quantities: remarking how it may be known if fluxional equations of this kind are susceptible of integration. Treating also of equations of condition thence resulting: how to render them integrable, when possible, by multiplying them by some factor: of what Bernouilli called homogeneous equations; of the separation of the indeterminates; and of the geometrical construction of fluxional equations when possible. In discussing which, the chief authors and improvers are Newton, Leibnitz, the Bernouillis, Clairaut, and Bougainville.

The historian, in the next article, first treats of the different forms of fluxions of the first order, having two variable quantities, which are resolved by analysis more or less completely: and then of what was called Riccati's equation, and of some particular forms which have been considered by other authors.

He then adverts to fluxions of the higher orders, that is, second, third, &c. fluxions: giving some methods of integration, and distinguishing between complete and incomplete forms, or what is called the correction of fluents. After these, follow some subsidiary means for the quadrature of curves and the inverse method of tangents: together with Newton's differential method, &c. The means here alluded to are, the very ingenious modes of approximation and series, as given by Newton, *viz.* his parallelogram, and similar methods. His differential method, by means of a parabolic curve described through a number of points in a proposed curve, is clearly described; as is also Simpson's neat variation of it. The application of these again, from the quadrature to the rectification of that curve, here given by Montucla, is very natural and simple. He then notices some other curious approximating theorems for curves and arcs, given also by Newton and by Lambert. On the whole, this is a very interesting article; but when treating on the differential method, it would have been but justice in the historian had he remarked, that the first traces and uses of it were given by Henry Briggs, in his work on logarithms, though applied to a different purpose.

Article XX. treats of series in general, with the writings of different authors on that subject. Montucla here observes, that the first instance of the use of series is found in the writings of Archimedes, who employed it in squaring the parabola. After this, he gives no other instances till that of Leibnitz, in the Leipsic Acts of the year 1682. It ought to have been remarked, however, that several other instances of the same in England had been offered before that date, *viz.* by Dr. Wallis and lord Brounker in 1655: by Newton in 1665; by Mercator and J. Gregory in 1668; again by lord Brounker in the same year, 1668. After Leibnitz, the historian next enumerates, in order, the discoveries in series by the Bernouillis and by Monmort. With regard to this last writer, it ought to have been remarked, that Briggs had long



preceded him in treating of series by means of the differences of the terms.

In the next article are explained, in a perspicuous manner, the recurring series of Demoivre, with the summation and interpolation of series by Stirling; where it ought to have been remarked that Briggs was the inventor and beginner of the method of interpolations.

Article XXII. is a further continuation of the same subject of infinite series; comprising the researches and different ideas of several analysts, particularly Euler, Maclaurin, D. Bernouilli, Goldbach, Demoivre, Mayer, Simpson, Landen, Maseres, Waring, Hutton, Lorgna, and Luini.

The twenty-third article explains certain transcendent branches of analysis which arose in the eighteenth century; and first the method of finite differences, or of increments, as it is called in England: in which are described the researches of Taylor, Nicole, Euler, Emerson, &c. on this branch; with the use of it in several inquiries, especially the summation of series. According to the natural order of things, this branch of finite differences ought to have preceded that of fluxions, or the infinitesimal calculus, as the latter is derived from the former by supposing the small differences to vanish; a way in which the matter had been conceived by Fermat and Barrow; and whence also, according to the extract from a letter of Leibnitz, he derived his rules for that calculus. But, from the circumstance of the vanishing or nullity of the difference, in the general expressions, the infinitesimal calculus became a case of the former, much more simple and easy, and even of far more general application. In consequence, this branch was first and universally cultivated, while the former was long neglected. It was Dr. Brook Taylor who first made the former branch an object of particular consideration, upon which he published in 1715, a piece under the title of '*Methodus Incrementorum directa et inversa.*' In this work, the subject was treated with much brevity and obscurity; but it was afterwards greatly extended and more clearly explained in the treatises of Nicole, Monmort, Euler, Emerson, Lagrange, Laplace, &c. whose works the historian particularly and clearly explains.

Article XXIV. treats of the method of limits; and the utility of this method in carrying geometrical rigour into results derived from the infinitesimal calculus. The method of limits may be traced at least from Archimedes, by which that great man showed that a circle is the limit of all its circumscribed or inscribed polygons, to which these approach continually nearer and nearer, as their sides become more and more numerous; and hence he inferred, that the area of a circle is equal to half the rectangle or product of its radius and circumference. He



also found that 2 is the limit of the sum of the terms of the infinite series  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{27}$ , &c.; and that  $\frac{2}{3}$  is the limit of the sum of the terms of the infinite series, or the area of the parabola, &c. About the middle of the eighteenth century, the foundation laid by Archimedes was methodised and extended by several mathematicians, chiefly to establish the doctrine of fluxions on more unexceptionable principles. The more considerable improvers of this method were Maclaurin, d'Alembert, d'Huilier, &c.

The twenty-fifth article is employed on algebraic functions; their different kinds and properties. The new calculus of functions was invented by Lagrange, for reducing to simple finite algebraic expressions such problems as had hitherto been treated by means of the differential and integral calculus. This theory is in effect an indispensable preliminary to that of partial differences, a part of the integral calculus, on which depends the solution of very curious and useful problems in physico-mathematics, such as that of vibrating cords, the motion of sound, and of fluids, &c. By means of algebraic functions, Lagrange has in a manner consolidated all the principles of the differential and integral calculus, by deducing them from pure and finite algebra. But it was John Bernouilli who first introduced the word into analysis, in his solution of the celebrated problem of the tautochronous curve in a resisting medium. It is Lagrange, however, who has brought this new calculus to a regular science. After having given specimens of it in some periodical publications, he published a separate treatise expressly on it in 1797. As, however, it is still, in a manner, a new science, Montucla employs more than usual pains in explaining its principles, notation, and operations.

What is called the calculus of circular quantities, occupies the next article. This name is given to such operations as relate to the measures and ratios of quantities arising from, or depending on, circular or angular motions, and which are commonly estimated by sines, tangents, &c. The first and chief writer on this calculus was the celebrated Euler.

The twenty-seventh article is on a kindred subject, or the calculus of logarithmic and imaginary quantities. And here, again, the same author is the principal writer and improver of this curious branch of analysis; in which he was soon followed by d'Alembert, Maclaurin, and others.

In the next article, the historian treats of the method of eliminations, or the modes of exterminating the unknown quantities out of several proposed equations. This part of the reduction of equations has been considered by the English only in the most simple and ordinary cases: those on the continent have carried it much further, and treated it more profoundly; the principal of whom are Euler, Cramer, Bezout, Lagrange, &c.

Article XXIX. treats on the theory of interpolations. The first traces of the method of interpolations were given by Briggs, a method which he employed very profitably in the construction of his tables of logarithms; and although he did not teach the rules of the art in a formal way, the uses he made of it were sufficient to show the general method of proceeding to an ordinary mathematician, and that he was possessed of the general rules for such interpolations. Wallis afterwards made use of similar means for the area of the circle, and of others for astronomical purposes. Newton advanced the same rules in another way, *viz.* by describing a curve line through the extremities of any number of equidistant ordinates. After him, Stirling made it the subject of a considerable part of an important work, in which he very much enlarged and improved the method. Various other improvements in the theory of interpolations, and useful applications of the same to many different sciences, have been made by several mathematicians, as Mayer, Walmesley, Lacaille, Lalande, Bossut, Prony, Charles Lagrange, Laplace, &c.

In the next article, Montucla gives the history of continued fractions, and their use in many curious problems in the mathematics. The first specimen of this kind of fractions was advanced by lord Brounker, the first president of the Royal Society, in simplifying or demonstrating an expression for the quadrature of the circle given by Wallis. After that, several mathematicians employed themselves in certain useful researches; but the chief cultivator of the theory of continued fractions, as of many other curious branches of science, was the celebrated Euler.

In the thirty-first article, an account is offered of some celebrated problems proposed among the mathematicians on occasion of the new calculus, and particularly of isoperimetric problems. These problems were chiefly proposed as trials of skill to each other by the two brothers, James and John Bernouilli, and agitated with much asperity between them. The subject is continued in the next article, particularly in regard to some problems concerning orthogonal and reciprocal trajectories, and several other curious problems, the solutions of which considerably improved various branches of the modern analysis, as well as the analysts themselves, by exciting a principle of emulation among them; the chief of whom were Leibnitz, the Bernouillis, Taylor, Herman, Euler, &c.—At this part of the work is found a note by the editor, Lalande, to the following effect:—‘The impression of this sheet was just finished at the press when the author (Montucla) died, the nineteenth of December, 1799. The rest of the manuscript required some revision, as well as additions, which I have willingly undertaken, as one of the author’s oldest friends, and one who greatly excited him to undertake this second edition.’

Article XXXIII. contains an account of the calculus of partial differentials; being a branch of the integral calculus, which, besides its own natural difficulty, the most curious and useful problems in physics often take that form of equations; such as those concerning vibrating cords, the propagation of sound, the equilibrium and motion of fluids, the noted problem of the tautochrones in a resisting medium, and many others. The notation and idea of such equations were first given by Fontaine, and some faint notices of them by Nic. Bernouilli and Clairaut; but it was Euler who first employed them as a separate calculus; after whom d'Alembert applied the method to the solution of a variety of curious problems, as well as most of the other continental mathematicians since their time.

In the next article is communicated some account of the method or calculus of variations, a name given to it by Euler; but the method itself was the invention of Lagrange.

(*To be continued.*)

ART. II.—*De ORIGINE et USU OBELISCORUM, ad Pium Sextum Pontificem Maximum, auctore GEORGIO ZOEGA Dano. Romæ. MDCCXCVII.*

*On the Origin and Use of Obelisks, by George Zoega: addressed to Pope Pius VI. Folio. 5l. 5s. Boards. Imported by Du Ponte.*

OF this work, the public expectation had been considerably raised, as well by the character of its author for talents and learning, as by the circumstances which so long delayed its appearance. Under the patronage of the late pope, the text, as the title declares, was printed in the year 1797; but the execution of the engravings was interrupted by the misfortunes of the patron, till the establishment of his successor led to their resumption. At length, in consequence, the volume is before us. Understanding the copies at Rome were all bought up, before even one had found its way hither, and that the work is not likely to undergo a re-impression, we shall be more copious than usual in detailing its contents.

The design of this volume, as avowed by its author, is to concentrate all the information on the subject hitherto collected; to examine whatever of a doubtful nature had been adduced respecting it; and to supply such additional observations as might tend to give it precision.

Beginning with some general remarks, Mr. Zoega distinguishes his citations under the two divisions of *obelisks* and *columns*; and collects whatever, appropriate to each, is found in the



various writers of antiquity. These citations he every-where illustrates with that erudition and judgement, which he is so well known to possess; availing himself of such additional lights as the treasures of the Vatican enabled him to obtain.

Hence, proceeding to the ancient inscriptions of obelisks, he first cites that erected by Augustus, in the Circus Maximus, discovered in the time of Gregory XIII.; and, after having been again overwhelmed, a second time dug up in 1587.—The same inscription, which occurs twice also on the obelisk erected by Augustus, as a gnomon in the Campus Martius, follows, with those of Caius Cæsar, on the pedestal of the Vatican obelisk—of Constantine, on the basis of the Lateran obelisk, now destroyed; given from a copy preserved in the library of the Vatican—and of the emperor Theodosius, in Greek and Latin, on the basis of the obelisk at Constantinople.

The next chapter contains an account of such monuments as have obelisks expressed upon them, beginning with that of Præneste, which exhibits, in the Egyptian manner, two plain obelisks on cubic pedestals, in front of the portico of a temple, and near them a circular cistern, which Mr. Zoega supposes to be the same mentioned by Herodotus, in the temple of Minerva, at Saïs. To this description a note is subjoined, on the age, intent, and execution, of this monument.

Two Herculanean pictures are next instanced, in which the upright beams are supposed, by the author, to have been obelisks—sculptured marbles, with a circus and obelisk—bas-reliefs on the pedestal of an obelisk at Constantinople; one representing a circus with two obelisks, the other an obelisk drawn by the aid of mechanism—the celebrated sculpture on the pedestal of the column of Antoninus Pius, representing a genius bearing him and Faustina aloft, while another genius, sitting on the ground, supports a column; in explanation of which an ingenious conjecture is offered—obelisks expressed on gems—obelisks on coins, among which a doubt is expressed, and which we could with many arguments strengthen, of the genuineness of the tetradrachm in Goltius, of Philip, the father of Alexander, that exhibits an obelisk with a globe upon it—a tetradrachm of Alexander, with a cone bearing a star, is explained—conic pillars and candelabra on various medals, considered as obelisks, are instanced—an Egyptian coin of the emperor Alexander, with a decumbent figure of the Nile and an obelisk at his feet, is observed on: a remark is made, that no coins are extant of Augustus Cæsar with a ship bearing an obelisk, and that a circus with an obelisk occurs upon coins. The chapter closes with examples of obelisks, among hieroglyphics on obelisks themselves, and on scarabæi; with conjectural observations on the import of an obelisk on a scarabæus, among the gems of cardinal Borgia.

The second section of the work contains an account of such Egyptian obelisks as exist at present, whether entire or mutilated, beginning with those at Rome, and, as the largest, with the *Lateran*, particularising its dimensions; and, generally observing that this, with the *Flaminian* and *Campensian*, present specimens of the best sculpture, the style and character of the sculpture are then discriminated. The distribution of the figures, the three columns of large hieroglyphics on either side of the shaft, the two rows on the capital, and the historic figure with the small characters on the base, are particularly insisted on.

The *Vatican* obelisk follows, as next in size; its history and dimensions are given. This monument is destitute of hieroglyphics. It was anciently broken and deprived of its top.

The *Flaminian* obelisk, which is at present three palms less than anciently, has the figures on it arranged nearly like those on the *Lateran*, excepting that its top has but one row instead of two.

The obelisk of the *Campus Martius* has on the sides of its shaft but two columns of hieroglyphics. Its pyramid and base present historic figures and small characters.

The *Pamphilian* obelisk exhibits historic figures on its pyramid, and on each side of the shaft a column of large characters, with a deep furrow on either side, inclosing them. The sculpture resembles that of the *Barberini* obelisk.

The *Esquiline* and *Quirinal* obelisks have no sculptures, and its pyramid is cut away.

The *Sallustian* obelisk is rude in its sculpture; nor is the work Egyptian. The disposition of the figures and characters much resembles those on the *Flaminian*.

The *Barberini* obelisk is mutilated at the bottom; its pyramid is entire; on its top are small historic figures and characters; on the shaft, two columns of large characters, separated from each other, and inclosed within vertical columns. The workmanship materially differs from that of the three other largest obelisks.

The *Mahutæan* obelisk hath a pyramid almost conical. The sculpture is much more rude than that on the largest obelisks, though resembling it in manner. It has no historic figures, and one column of characters on a side.

The sculpture of the *Minervean* obelisk betrays imitation; its pyramid is plain; and the columns on the sides are each inclosed by a deep-cut border.

The upper part of the small *Matthæian* obelisk is altogether like the *Mahutæan*. The *Albanian* is but part of the trunk of a small obelisk, with distinct columns of characters inclosed within furrowed outlines, and of slovenly workmanship.

Mention is next made of the small obelisks at Rome, noticed



by writers of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; other fragments of obelisks in the city, and the remains of an insular obelisk in the Villa Albani and the Borgian museum.

The next chapter comprehends obelisks without the city, and in the European provinces.

Amongst these are enumerated the trunk of a small obelisk in the Borgian palace, resembling the Albanian, with fragments of the Lateran, Campensian, Pamphilian and insular obelisks—an obelisk in the market-place of Beneventum, the workmanship of which resembles that of the Pamphilian—an obelisk at Florence, perfectly like the Mahutæan—another Florentine obelisk, more diminutive than any of the rest, of a dusky Thebaïc stone; its side less than a palm wide; the pyramid void of ornament, with a double row of characters carelessly, and, as if curiously, cut; the columns separated and inclosed by deep lines—the Catanean obelisk, mutilated towards the bottom, of an octangular form, with four vertical rows of figures on the entire obelisk, apparently not of Egyptian sculpture—the obelisk of Arles, entirely plain, and that at Wansted, sculptured with historical figures and small characters. At Constantinople, in the Hippodrome, the obelisk is mutilated at bottom; but, on its pyramid and top, has historical figures with small characters, and on each side of the shaft a column of large characters. In the gardens of the *seraglio* is also an obelisk with hieroglyphics. The descriptions of these are followed by an account of the pedestal of the obelisk in the Hippodrome; and of a colossal structure, or obelisk, formed of broken shafts piled together, in the Hippodrome also; as well as of a triangular obelisk composed of various fragments, with a Greek sepulchral inscription, noticed by Pococke, in Asia Minor, near Nicæa.

An enumeration immediately follows of the obelisks still extant in Egypt and Ethiopia; to which general observations, concerning the former, are adduced from Sicard and Norden.

The first of those particularised are the two obelisks still standing at the port of Alexandria, and one thrown down, with the Arabic traditions concerning them; together with the accounts of various travellers.

The fragments of obelisks, inscribed also with hieroglyphics, lying near the pillar of Pompey, as mentioned by Norden and Pococke, next follow, with those of the obelisk within the lines of Rosetta, remarked by the same authors; and another near Themaye, observed by Paul Lucas; one standing amongst the ruins of Heliopolis, and two at the same place, which the Arabs say remained to the time of Mohamed-ebn-tulon, upon the summits of which were two brazen cisterns. Subjoined, in a note, are the different accounts of the Heliopolitan obelisks, extracted from the relations of travelers.

The fragments of hieroglyphic obelisks at Cairo, as described



by Niebuhr, Pococke, and Maillet, and that yet standing near Faiumi, mentioned by Paul Lucas, Vansleb, and Pococke, are subjects of the two next sections; as are the two broken and prostrate obelisks amongst the ruins of Berbi, or, as Pococke conjectured, Abydus—the obelisks pointed out by Lucas, in the ruins of Cæne—and the obeliscal fragment which Bruce saw in the quarry of Terfowey.

In that which follows, an enumeration is given of *eight*, or, as others say, of *ten* obelisks, amongst the ruins of Thebes, at Carnac and Luxor—at Carnac, of four large obelisks placed diagonally about the shrine or sanctuary, three still standing—two square pillars, or obelisks, without a pyramid—and fragments of vast obelisks, of a whitish calcareous stone, in which the sculptured figures are coloured. Authorities are annexed, in the notes, from Sicard, Protais, Norden, Pococke, Savary, Perry, and Bruce.

From the relations of Pococke, Norden, Granger, Perry, and Savary, are described the two obelisks in front of the vestibule of the great temple at Luxor, which for polish and sculpture are universally admitted to be the most beautiful of their kind: on the pyramid and top are historical figures; on the shaft three columns of characters; the basis is concealed in the ground.

The remaining obelisks cited by Mr. Zoega are, one unfinished in the quarry at Syena—Hermæa between Syene and Phile—four in the island Phile, of which two stand in the area of the temple, surrounded by porticoes, and two near the wall of the fortification—fragments of obelisks, inscribed with hieroglyphics, found by Bruce in the island of Curgos, where Meroë anciently stood—several small obelisks in the ruins of Axuma, one of which is still standing, entirely unlike the obelisks of Egypt, in as much as it appears to represent a tower, with a gate and several rows of windows, and has on its summit a disc. To this an inquiry is subjoined, whether these obelisks were raised by Ptolemy Euergetes, or the king Elesbaa and his successors. Passages relating to Axuma are cited from the ancients—observations are annexed on the name of the town, and relations adduced from Alvarez, Marmol, Mendez, Almeyda, Poncet, and Bruce.

Having closed his account of the existing obelisks, our author proceeds to inquire concerning the use to which the Egyptians applied them. An obelisk he defines to be a quadrilateral beam, gradually lessening from the base to its summit, and terminated by a pyramidal top. The definitions of others are annexed. The distinction made by the ancients between large acuminate beams, which alone were styled by them obelisks, while they called the less pillars, is insisted on; and, after observing that the Egyptians equally applied the term *Ἀκριντζαί* to both, the etymon of the word *obeliscus* is sought. Notice is taken of those who confound obelisks with pyramids, and the term

*pyramis* is explained to signify, amongst the Egyptians, an eternal mansion. Authorities to confirm this interpretation are adduced, and to show that *birabi* in Egypt signified *temple*.

In adverting to the figure of obelisks, Mr. Zoega observes that it was never confined to certain rules, but admitted of considerable variety, though no Egyptian obelisks have occurred of a triangular form, nor was any uniform symmetry observed in them. The only consideration of the Egyptians in their formation was how to produce a good effect. The sentiments of Kircher and Mercati on symmetry are adduced; and the mysteries, which these and others have affected to discover in obelisks and pyramids, are exploded.

In treating the materials of which obelisks are made, the greater part is affirmed to be of red granite, on account of its hardness and tenacity, and also as rendering, from its colour, the hieroglyphics more visible at a distance; that others, however, occur of various kinds of stone. To these remarks, observations are added, on the nature of red granite, from Petrini and Wadd, with a conjecture that basaltes was so called from iron, and a notice of those monuments of the Egyptians made from smaragdus, which answered very much to our Derbyshire spar. The chapter closes with remarks on the mysterious properties which Kircher and Mercati have idly sought in the qualities of the matter from which obelisks were made.

In respect to the bulk of these Egyptian monuments, it is observed that the Lateran obelisk, though the largest now known, is considerably less than those which Sesostris and Phero erected. Observations follow on the uncertainty of the precise length of the ancient cubit as applied to obelisks, and an account of those mentioned by the ancients, with their specific dimensions. This list is followed by another of the obelisks still extant, which, from their different sizes, are distinguished into four classes—the first, including such as are not less than *eighty* palms; the second, those between *eighty* and *forty*; the third, those *double the height of a man*; and the fourth, *all under*. Of the first and second class the ancients have recorded *twenty-two*, exclusive of those at Saïs and Thebes, which were not included. At present *twenty-five* are found to remain, besides those at Axuma.

As to the situation of obelisks, it is remarked by Mr. Zoega, that, for the most part, they are placed two together at the entrance of temples, but not uniformly, since they are sometimes found in the interior of the shrine, at other times in the area, or near walls through which there is no passage; whilst some also are erected singly. The opinion, that the faces of the Egyptian obelisks were placed towards the four cardinal points, is stated to be erroneous; and the same is contended to hold as to pyramids also. It is further observed, that obelisks anciently in Egypt

were placed on low plinths, and sometimes to the plinth was superadded a torus.

In seeking the end for which obelisks were erected, after stating that the moderns—among whom Kircher, the academicians of inscriptions at Paris, Gouget, and Bruce, are noticed—deemed them to have been designed for gnomons, Mr. Zoega maintains that the passage cited from Apion by Josephus is no proof, since it has no respect to the subject of a gnomon, but the figure of Harpocrates placed on the top of a column. To this he adds, that Bruce's observations respecting obelisks, in particular, do not accord with the accounts of other travelers, though there are some evidences which lead to infer that the Egyptians sometimes placed globes on the tops of their obelisks. The author opposes the opinion of Winkelman, who argues from this passage of Apion that columns derived their origin from obelisks, and quotes the opinion of Pauw, as agreeing with his own.

Against the opinion of our countryman, Stuart, who discovered, in the inclination of their sides, that the Egyptians inferred from the shadows of obelisks the length of their days, and the cardinal points of the year—whence he concluded that the particular degree of latitude might be ascertained to which each obelisk was originally adapted—Mr. Zoega strenuously contends; and under this head takes occasion to remark on the overflow of the Nile, the seasons of the year in Egypt, the commencement of the Egyptian year, and rise of Sothis, adding observations on the oryx, and correcting a corrupted passage in the first book of Horapollo.

From the hypothesis of Stuart, our author proceeds to controvert those of Pierius, Belloni, and others, who took obelisks for sepulchral monuments; discussing a passage in Strabo:—also, the conjecture of Jablonski of obelisks being substitutes for statues, admitting, however, that, about the age of Julius Cæsar, there were superstitious persons who rendered them worship:—likewise, the opinion of Mercati, who held all obelisks sacred to the sun,—and approving the position of Bargæus, that different obelisks were dedicated to different divinities.

Of the Egyptians it is observed, in general, that they were accustomed to erect pillars or stones with inscriptions (and obelisks were but a larger kind) in their temples, and consecrated them to their gods. Hence it is inferred that they were designed as commemorative monuments; but that sometimes, through haste, or because their bulk might sufficiently distinguish them, they were offered to their divinities, or placed in their temples, uninscribed.

The next chapter, professing to treat the subject of the sculptures on obelisks, opens with an attack on the position of Pauw, who denied that they properly belonged to the consideration of sculptures; Mr. Zoega contending that the erection of unsculptured obelisks was no proof of ignorance. Having stated the opinion of Mercati—that the sculptures on the most ancient monuments were predictions concerning the fate of the kingdom drawn from astrology, whilst those of later times presented the exploits of kings and records of tribute—the author proceeds to Kircher, who maintained that the figures in



question were entirely ideal subjects of difficult apprehension, as they relate to the properties of the divine nature, the orders of angels and genii, to theurgy and the rites of expiation; adding, that what Hermapion and other ancient writers have advanced on these heads is little worthy of credit. The various decisions of the learned on the interpretation of Hermapion are subjoined; the opinion of Warburton, that the figures on obelisks are no more than historical memorials, is stated; together with those of Pauw and Bruce, the former of whom affirms them to be philosophical, and the latter astronomical.

Dissatisfied with these different hypotheses, Mr. Zoega assents to the position of Bandini, that, since the explanation of hieroglyphics is no longer attainable, the decision of those writers of antiquity should be admitted, who represent them as containing the praises of kings, so blended (according to Hermapion) with the praises of their gods, as to render the obelisks themselves monuments consecrated to both; whilst the cuspis, or top, represents their dedication.

Mr. Zoega is further persuaded, that, on different obelisks, subjects of a different nature occur, and that nothing can be generally affirmed as to the common import of all. He intimates the necessity of caution in adopting the accounts of Grecian writers on the affairs of Egypt, and especially of the conquests of their kings in Asia and India. From a comparison of the respective sculptures on the different obelisks, Mr. Zoega is induced to conclude, that the *stelæ*, or small ones, admit a diversity of subject; but that the large obelisks, having an especial appropriation to the divinity, statelyly comprise an invocation of the gods, and exhibit, in the figures which occupy their shafts, hymns as it were to them. The larger figures on the top and base, together with the small characters, he supposes to contain the formula of dedication, and occasion of the obelisk; while the pyramid is deemed to present a sort of inscription, declaring the name and nature of the god to whom the monument is raised. The general arrangement of the figures, and repetition in particular of some, are imagined to imply a rythmical arrangement; and, from the interpretation of Hermapion, the whole may properly be entitled a hymn. The opinion of Blanchini, that these obelisks contained annals, is strenuously opposed in a note.

The mechanic operations relative to obelisks being the subject of the succeeding chapter, Mr. Zoega directs his researches to the excision of them in the quarries, their conveyance thence to the river, and from the river to the place of erection. In considering the mode of erecting them, a note is introduced respecting the mechanics of the Peruvians.

As the principal ground of admiration respects the sculpture itself of these obelisks, notice is very properly taken of the art which the Egyptians possessed of hardening iron, and which is now lost.

Various styles of sculpture having been practised by them, they are here distinguished into five, which are exemplified from the Florentine obelisk, as the rudest, the Insular, the Mahutæan, the

Campensian, as the best, and the Barberini. Having adverted, in a note, to the tools used by the moderns for working in granite, the chapter closes with inferences, from the great fabrication of obelisks, concerning the industry and antiquity of the arts in Egypt, as it is evident that monuments of this kind were sculptured and set up long before the Trojan war.

Devoting the next division of the work to the origin of obelisks, Mr. Zoega enumerates the various modes which mankind in the early ages have adopted to preserve and transmit the memory of events; such as pebbles of different colours, nails, cords, and the quipu; rude stones or trunks of trees set up as memorials. The instances of this sort, adduced from various nations, are closed with an account of the stone erected in Aulis under a plane-tree, which was fabled to have been converted to a serpent. Such stones being deemed sacred, as every one was interested to prevent their removal, the law of Plato respecting boundaries is introduced, the Terminus in the Capitol adverted to, and the rites observed in fixing them.

From the sacred character thus acquired, these land-marks, or directories in fields, and where three roads met, were anointed and revered by the Greeks and Romans, as the tutelary genii of their stations. The Saturnian stone at Delphi is introduced as the sign of the Amphictyonic convention; whence the fable of the stone devoured by Saturn; also the god Terminus. As analogous to the subject, Mr. Zoega remarks, in his notes, upon the anointed stones pictured on vases; also on Delphi, and the Amphictyons.

Observations, in continuation of the subject, follow on the stone at Bethel, dedicated by Jacob, as a god of the Syrians; the less Baetylia, and portable stones; the Persian Baetylia; the Ammoniac, in the Borgian museum:—also the greater Baetyli, Abaddir, Elagabalus, Casius, and others:—the quadrate divinities of the Arabs: Dusares and Oboda. Dusares is explained to signify *Lord*, as among the Greeks Zeus from *Ζῷς*. A note is added on Dusares and Lycurgus of Thrace, and the fable of Lycurgus as exhibited on the Borghesian marble, coins, and gems.

The above is followed by an account of certain ancient divinities of the Greeks and Romans, which appear to have originated from monuments; such as the stone Jupiter, the guardians of gardens, the Lares Viales, Vesta, Agyieus, Apollo Agyieus, Phallus, set up in ancient times to defend a field, or designate a forum; afterward taken for the symbol of generation; one while referred to Bacchus or Priapus, at another to Mercury. The primæval gods of Greece are observed to have been nameless and formless; these, when afterward intellectual divinities were adopted, they began to despise; but, being unwilling to abolish, called them the representatives of more noble deities. A remarkable passage is cited from Herodotus, whence it is collected, in like manner, that the worship of Osiris and Phallus was more modern among the Egyptians than that of their other divinities. It is laid down as a universal position, that, in the most ancient religion, there was nothing obscene,

but that these two-fold mysteries were the result of later ages. The Phales of the Cyllenii, and Pales of the Etruscans, are next mentioned; the Hermes of the Pharenses; the square forms of various divinities, and chiefly of the Arcadians, having a head only; the truncated Hermæ of the Attics; the stones sacred to Mercury, as signs and guardians of particular places; and thence the signs of Mercury and Hermes which almost every-where occurred; the Hermæ with two and three faces; the Hermes bifrons, styled, by Pliny, Janus; Janus, with the Romans, being what Hermes was in general with the Greeks, and the Janus of Numa, which was no other than a truncate stone. Supplementary to this division of his subject, Mr. Zoega has, in several very interesting notes, presented discussions concerning Jusjurandum, the greatest of the gods; the rites of federation among the Arabs; on Vesta, as no other than the domestic fire-place; the gods before door-ways; on Agyieus at Delphi, with, in reference to the same, a description of a very exquisite sculpture which occurs four times in the Villa Albani, representing the sacred rites of Delphi granted by the rest of the celestials to Apollo, his sister, and mother; Iris, as minister, pouring forth a libation before the Pythian temple: also the same divinities on another marble in that villa, not properly explained by Winkelmann; and Iris, likewise, in a sculpture, representing Hercules at rest.

In addition to these, the author has directed his attention to certain sepulchral little pillars in the form of the Phallus, whence sprang the fable of Polymnus, who showed Dionysus the descent to the regions below,—as well as to the murder of Dionysus by Perseus, mystically represented in the Lernæan rites, like that of Osiris in the circular lake at Saïs.

The Pelasgic mythus of the Ithyphallic Hermes is then given; Hermes the lover of Proserpine; Proserpine the moon; Hermes Sirius; the Cabiri of Samothrace have their origin and names traced to Egypt; the Grecian Mercury shown at once to have been Thoth and Anubis.

The two-headed Hermæ are stated to represent, not Phanetes, but Mercury himself; while the quadrate statues with a bearded head are affirmed to be generally Mercury, and, rarely, Bacchus. A notice succeeds of Dionysus Morychus, and an affirmation that none of the quadrate statues but those of Mercury were called Hermæ by the ancients.

Mr. Zoega traces out an affinity between Janus and Hermes, though apparently of a different origin; and observes that, though each tribe and family had at first a peculiar religion, yet in process of time these different superstitions coalesced. A derivation of the term *Hermes* from the Egyptian is then given, and an inquiry instituted when the Romans began to use statues artificially formed.

Returning from these digressions, our author again proceeds with the unformed gods of the Greeks, chiefly of Achaia and Bœotia, noticing in particular the Spartan Docana, the Hyettian Hercules, the Cupid of the Thespians, the Graces of the Orchomenians, the seven planets on Mount Taygetus, the thirty gods in the forum of



the Pharenses, Jupiter Milichius, and Diana Patroa of the Sicyonians, the Apollo Carinus of Megaris, the Paphian Venus, the Cadmean Bacchus, Pallas of Attica, the Rharian Ceres, the Icarian Diana, the Juno of Cytheron and Samos, the rustic Bacchus, Bacchus Phalenus of the Lesbians, and the Priapus of gardens. A note is annexed to justify the epithet *Rharia*, as applied to Ceres instead of *Pharia*, and *Farrea* in Tertullian, it being the Rharian plain, in which grain was first sown by Triptolemus. In another it is stated that finished columns were never used to represent divinities; nor that any thing in the form of columns was substituted for ancient statues. These remarks are applied in a critique on the representation of the Jupiter at Olympia in a picture on a vase of the Vatican, and another in the Hamilton collection, alluding to the three souls in man.

From the unshapen representatives of divinities among the Greeks, a transition is made to those of the barbarous nations, beginning first with the Egyptians, among whom rude monuments and symbols of this kind are said to have existed, though we have no actual memorial of them. The most ancient temples in Egypt are shown to have been void of statues; and the holy trunk, in which at times the sacred body of Osiris was inclosed, is instanced as an example—but surely not altogether in point, since this body of Osiris consisted of its distinct limbs, at least to one only, which was lost.—The cippi and stakes of the Phœnicians are cited to the same effect.

Sacred trees next occur, to which various nations resorted for the business of their conventions; for instance, the oak and linden-tree of the Germans and Gauls, the beech yggdrasil of the Scandinavians, the wanzey of the Gallani, the Dodonæan oak, and the Delian palm. The Dodona of the Pelasgi, and Pytho of the Hellenes; the Arcadian Lycosura; the Ruminal fig-tree, with other examples of sacred trees in Italy and Greece; the elm, which was the most ancient temple of Diana at Ephesus; and the tree which the Africans hold both for a temple and an oracle.

The subjects of the notes under this section are the island of Delos, Dodona, Lycosura, and the secret worship of Jupiter Lycæus; the Morian oil, and Jupiter Morius; with an account of the oldest trees in Greece.

Heaps of picked stones are made the next objects of research, as constituting commemorative witnesses of compacts; and of this sort the Hermæan tumuli, with those of Tibet, are cited as instances.

Passing from these, Mr. Zoega contends that the false ideas which men have entertained of God are by no means to be deduced from the same common source; but that, from the peculiar circumstances of individuals, tribes, and nations, their various superstitions have proceeded. That of amulets he considers the most ancient and extensive; to which is annexed the worship of the heavenly bodies, rocks, fountains, and whatever is peculiarly useful. In the notes, under these heads, are specified the saving of Mæris by a crocodile, with other similar examples; fetiches, phylacteries, tutelaries, or palladia. Stars are thought, by our author, to have been more recently the objects of worship than amulets; and the sun later than the moon. He affirms also that the Persians at first did not worship

the sun, but their own domestic fire. The sentiments of *Maximus Tyrius* concerning the most ancient divinities are adduced.

Entering on the subject of sepulchres, Mr. Zoega sets out with remarking that some nations destroy, as far as possible, the bodies of their dead; the practice, in respect to them, of Scythians, Magi, people of Tibet and of Siam, the Indians and the Cians. It is observed that most nations seek to preserve the bodies of their dead from corruption, and transmit the memory of their parents and friends to futurity. The Egyptians are distinguished for their skill in embalming the dead, and preserving at home the bodies of their parents. Passages are quoted from *Herodotus*, *Diodorus*, *Strabo*, *Pliny*, and *Plato*, relative to their practice of embalming; and remarks of modern chemists on Egyptian mummies, three modes of treating which are described. Of the collar bandages, the outermost are sometimes ornamented with figures and characters; masks are placed over the faces; and the upper integument is formed from strips of cloth glued together, and painted with various devices, figures, and hieroglyphics. Within the body itself, and between the folds that envelop it, are found seals, amulets, scarabæi, small pieces of gold, twigs of plants, flowers, leaves, and roots. When the custom of preserving bodies in Egypt began or ceased, cannot now be precisely ascertained. From the earliest records it is known to have existed, and that it continued at least to the fifth century. The custom itself can be referred to no other origin than pious affection to their parents; and as the dry air of Egypt favoured their preservation of them, they sought, by degrees, to render them incorruptible. It was usual with the Egyptians to retain their dead at home, and, when in want of money, to pledge them. The Ethiopians of *Meroë* practised the same method of embalming as the Egyptians; and the same solicitude to preserve their dead from decay prevailed also among the Babylonians, Persians, and part of the Scythians; as likewise among the inhabitants of the Canaries, and other countries, as well in America as on the old continent. The Greeks and Latins seem to have kept the dead bodies of their parents in their houses. There appear to have been various nations who have contented themselves with retaining their dead for a short period, or a given number of months or years, and then consigned them to the earth, or the flames; whilst it has been usual with others to remove the rest out of sight, and preserve at home the head or some other member. Nor can other cause be assigned for the practice of burning, than that of reducing the substance to a narrower compass, for the greater convenience of preservation, or, when any died in battle or abroad, to bring them the more easily home. The custom of burning and burying promiscuously prevailed amongst the Greeks, Romans, and others. Depositing the body in the ground is admitted by Mr. Zoega to have been the most ancient mode of sepulture.

In the notes subordinate to these researches, *Strabo* is cited, who describes the Irish as eating human flesh, and holding it honourable to devour the dead bodies of their parents; also *Herodotus*, who, with others, attributes the same ferocity to some of the Indians. A retrospect is given of the modern authors who treated on the conservation of mummies. The most effectual kind of embalming is

referred to Osiris; and it is particularly noted, that those whose office it was to embalm were highly honoured by the Egyptians. Having argued that the custom for the dissector to escape the instant he had made the incision, was no proof that anatomy was interdicted in Egypt, Mr. Zoega brings together various observations on mummies; re-traces the most ancient vestiges of embalming in Egypt; particularises a singular practice of the aboriginal Virginians in respect to their dead; and, in noticing the custom of gathering the bones of burnt bodies, remarks that it was usual to collect and consign to the urn a part of them only.

The topic immediately succeeding is the repositories of the dead. The desire of extending life after death, and affection towards friends and parents, whom memory revives and dreams render present, has prompted the imagination that consciousness remained with the body though buried, and that, unless the corporeal substance were totally destroyed, the shadow of the soul would continue to exist. Hence a bed-chamber was prepared for the deceased, as well as food, garments, weapons, and sometimes horses, dogs, servants, and wives; whilst sacrifices were instituted to the infernal divinities in favour of the deceased. It was further believed, that the soul, departed to Hades, still remained solicitous for the state of the body it had quitted; whence the superstition that prevailed in respect to sepulchres, lest any one should disturb the repose of the dead. The most ancient repositories are said to have been caverns, or accidental chasms in rocks. To these, amongst the Egyptians, succeeded artificial excavations, adorned with sculptures and painting, and sometimes with inclosures and temples before their entrances, such as occur near Thebes. To the mention of these, descriptions of others from modern travelers are added, and caverns of the same kind are pointed out in different parts of Egypt. Passages from Strabo and Diodorus, relative to the sepulchres at Thebes, are introduced, which are followed by accounts, from books of travel, of the vaults about Memphis and Busiris. The mode of placing the dead, whether standing or lying, and with or without sarcophagi, is noticed, together with the sculptures, seals, small coffers, and vases. In the vaults of Busiris are found the bodies of sacred animals; and similar vaults are instanced in other districts of Egypt. The Alexandrian Necropolis is described from Strabo and other travelers: what has been noted by Plutarch of the sepulchres of Osiris at Abydus, Memphis, Phile, Busiris, and Taphosiris, and by Diodorus of those at Memphis, is subjoined.

In the notes on this division, Mr. Zoega adverts to the custom of widows in India burning themselves with their husbands, and reports it as the belief of the most ancient Greeks that the soul departed with the body, and remained in the sepulchre where that was interred; but that, in later times, they imagined an intercourse with those deceased, a subterranean world, a community of the dead, and an infernal divinity—opinions greatly resembling those of the barbarous nations. General observations follow, on visiting the caverns of Egypt; the sepulture of Apis; the island Phile, and etymon of the word; Abydus; Busiris and Taphosiris; and on the words Charon and Cerberus, as derived from the Egyptian idiom.



The rite of burial and judgement of the dead, which universally prevailed through Egypt, is, in the next section, detailed from Diodorus, who relates that the Egyptians prepared their sepulchres at a distance from the approach of the Nile, to which they transferred the remains of their parents, after having preserved them embalmed for a set time in their houses. From this practice, it became the concern of the magistrates in the respective towns not to suffer any corpse to be buried whilst pledged for a debt. Hence their power was enlarged, and they were authorised to institute an inquiry into the life of the person offered for burial; nor was any one admitted to be deposited in the sacred vaults who was not acquitted of every impurity, and pronounced worthy the society of Osiris and their ancestors. Those, however, who were surprised by crocodiles or drowned in the Nile, were deemed holy, and buried in the sacred repositories.

From the funeral rites of the Egyptians we are led to the state of the soul after death. The opinion entertained by them on this head is given, in the first place, from Herodotus. It was maintained more explicitly by the priests of Egypt than the sages of other nations, that the soul was immortal, and would never perish; that it continued with the body, and descended with it to those below, over whom Isis and Osiris were believed to preside, there participating happiness in proportion as their conduct in life had been more or less acceptable to the gods, till the body should perish through age; that the soul then returned to animate new bodies, beginning from the lowest order of animals, and ascending through the more noble, till, after three thousand years having elapsed, it re-assumed the human form; but that those who, during three such circuits, were found perfectly just, should remain in happiness with Osiris, nor again return to a body. Pindar's celebrated description of Elysium is quoted, as expressing indeed the Egyptian doctrine, but modified by the Greeks. From the sentiments of Plato, it is made obvious that the sages of Greece, as well as some of the eastern nations, borrowed the metempsychosis from Egypt. In Greece, Thales, Pherecydes, and Pythagoras, who first asserted the immortality of the soul, are affirmed to have drawn their doctrine from Egyptian sources. Sacrifices to the infernal deities were proscribed by the Egyptians. Isis, or the moon, was supposed to preside over the lower regions, to whom the hero Osiris was conjoined. These divinities are every-where obvious on the sepulchral monuments of Egypt. An explanation is offered of the pictures on sarcophagi which represent Osiris executing the office of judge below. What is apprehended to be the true history of the death and descent to the infernal regions of Osiris—who, from a mortal man, was made a hero, and, afterward, chief of the gods—when stripped of its mysterious veil. The same is said to have been called Serapis, or the father of the dead. The bull Apis was accustomed to be buried in the temple of Serapis at Memphis, called, by others, of Hecate Scotia, or the infernal Isis. To this temple the mystic rite had respect, which was styled the descent of Rampsinitus. Of the infernal Osiris, wolves are stated to have been his ministers. Amongst the Egyptians it is noticed that the repositories of the dead

were denominated eternal abodes. A curious passage is adduced from Servius, which relates to the soul, as obnoxious to a dead body; the different sentiments of the Greek philosophers are produced concerning the metempsychosis; and the Egyptians are asserted to have holden that punishments were unknown in the regions below.

Interesting investigations here ensue in the notes, concerning the Egyptian word *ament*, which signifies both the setting of the sun and the infernal regions; the fable of Elysium and Rhadamanthus, as of Egyptian origin; observing, however, that, though the descent to Hades was by death, the transit to Rhadamanthus did not imply it; the magi, as having learned the metempsychosis from the Egyptians, which the lamas, brachmans, talapoins, and other sects in Asia, had from them; the Serapeum of Alexandria, which is affirmed to have originated from the chapel of Osiris inferus; wolves, which were deemed sacred in Egypt, and are common on the monuments of that country; also, the fables of the poets, as being foreign to the Egyptian doctrine of hell.

Reverting to sepulchral caverns, subterranean ones in various nations are observed on, whether designed for individuals, different families, entire tribes, or towns. Under this head are considered the labyrinths of Greece, wells, and sepulchral temples above ground. Mr. Zoega hence digresses, in a note, to the sepulchral and other structures at Persepolis, which he assigns to the time of Darius.

At this division of the subject, our other claims compel us, though reluctantly, to postpone the remainder.

(To be continued.)

ART. IV.—*Déscription d'un Paré en Mosaïque decouvert dans l'ancienne Ville d'Italica, aujourd'hui le Village de Santiponce près de Séville; suivie de Recherches sur la Peinture en Mosaïque chez les Anciens, et les Monuments en ce Genre qui n'ont point encore été publiés. Par Alexandre Laborde. Paris.*

*Laborde's Description of a Mosaic Pavement discovered in the ancient City of Italica, now the Village of Santiponce, near Seville; to which are subjoined, Researches concerning the Mosaic Painting of the Ancients, and the Monuments of that Kind which are still unpublished. Folio. 13l. 13s. Boards. Imported by Payne and Mackinlay. 1802.*

THIS work—which for splendor and beauty stands unrivalled—is presented as a specimen of a *Picturesque Voyage through Spain*, intended for publication in the year just begun. In the preface, after a general remark on mosaic pavements, the use of which was so frequent in the later times of the Roman republic, the ruin they have suffered from barbarians, and the little notice paid them by civilised nations; confirmed by references to those of Bavay, Aix in Provence, Metz, &c. of which nothing remain but such designs as, instead of replacing, merely increase the re-



gret felt for their loss, the author points out the more favourable circumstances attending those in Spain, and assigns as his reason of selecting the one he has given, that it is the most considerable which has hitherto been discovered. The particulars which are mentioned as recommending it to notice are the curious details it exhibits of the interior architecture of the Circus, the colours of the *factions*, or four divisions of charioteers, their analogies with the seasons of the year, the place of the president superintending the games, and the opinion already adopted concerning the oblique direction in which the goals have been stationed, since, at least, if not before, the time of Caracalla. This monument was discovered on the 12th of December, 1799, by digging in a meadow of the convent of St. Isidore; and was preserved by the joint attentions of a monk belonging to that house, and those of Don Francisco Spinosa, who, to the loss of science and humanity, was swept off by the epidemic disease that ravaged Andalusia in the year 1801.

As introductory to the explication of this mosaic, M. Laborde has prefixed an historical notice of *Italica*, a city which gave birth to the emperors Trajan, Hadrian, and Theodosius; subjoining remarks on the mosaic painting of the ancients, and observations on similar discoveries, not yet made public.

The earliest accounts of *Italica* go no higher than the 144th olympiad, or 208 years before the Christian epoch, when Scipio Africanus, having ended the war in Bætica by the conquest of that province, collected his wounded soldiers and veterans into one city, and called it, from Italy, *Italica*. From Appian and other authorities, M. Laborde concludes, that this city, which was distinguished as a *municipium* even to the time of Hadrian, must have had an anterior existence. During the wars of Cæsar in Spain, this city adhered to the children of Pompey, but, like the whole province, was subdued without much resistance. In the beginning of the fifth century, it experienced, from the Northern invaders, the like fate with the rest of Spain, but fell from the power of the Vandals under that of the Goths, commanded by Wallia, their king. In 595, Leuvigilde, another of their kings, caused its walls to be rebuilt, for the purpose of confining his son Hermenegilde within the precincts of Seville. Destroyed afterward by the Moors, it was no more restored. The dilapidated walls and the ruins, still standing, of its fine amphitheatre are the sole remains of its grandeur that have escaped the havoc of barbarians and the wastes of time. The fields around it long retained its name, and, even in the time of Morales and Rodrigo Caro, were still called *Los Campos de Talca*. At the close of the eighteenth century, the village of *Santiponce* having been destroyed by fire, its inhabitants founded a new establishment amid the ruins of the ancient city, which is at the present day no more than a small village, presenting nothing remarkable but a convent of Hieronymite fathers, which, situated on an eminence, commands a view of Seville, its rich plain, and environs.

M. Laborde, admitting that further evidence is wanted to ascertain the precise topography of this city, proceeds to adduce it



from monumental inscriptions found on the spot, and the concurrent testimonies of ancient writers. At the same time he confirms its claim to Trajan as a native, and also to Hadrian, in opposition to those who have disputed it. With equal success he arrogates to it the like honour as having been the birth-place of the emperor Theodosius.

To the names of these celebrated Romans, sprung from Italica, he adds those of *Viriatius*, *Caius Martius*, *Pomponius Niger*, *Marcus Varro*, *Titus Thorius*, but especially of the poet *Silius*, hence styled *Italicus*, and the centurion *Cornelius*, of the *Italican* cohort, who first embraced the Christian religion, and is so honourably mentioned in the Acts by St. Luke. In reference to the two last, indeed, it is admitted, that, though the epithets do not directly prove the point they yet must be received as presumptions in its favour. The arguments in support of it are certainly ingenious, and scarcely leave room to admit of a doubt.

Having finished this inquiry, we come to the explication of the mosaic itself, of which the first plate furnishes a general representation, with scales in Spanish and French measures to ascertain its dimensions. The fragment contained in plate the second exhibits the muses Clio and Euterpe, who are distinguished by their names; and a third compartment, uninjured, the figure of a Centaur, which, having a reference to the games of the Circus, is reserved for a future subject of discussion. It is regretted by the author, that, in the next division, which forms the first of the third plate, though her mask remains, the figure of Thalia herself was destroyed; below her is a well-figured stork, though barely an outline, with three *pila*, or balls, which constituted an ancient exercise in the Campus Martius, bore an affinity to the games of the Circus, and therefore were here introduced. The sort of ball on this mosaic is the *pila trigonalis*, which was so called from the triangular apartment formed for the play—the aim of it being to direct the ball towards the angle in such a manner as to touch both walls, and return in a line equidistant from both. To this game *Martial* refers:

Si me mobilibus scis expulsare sinistris,  
Sum tua; si nescis, rustice, redde *pilam*.

The fourth plate presents the bust of Terpsichore, or the muse of dancing, with a cupola, as it is termed, of the hall in which dances were performed. One of the most distinguished figures in the whole mosaic is that of Erato, in the fifth plate, in the act of recitation, and as represented on the medals of the Pomponian family. The practice of holding a laurel branch while declaiming verses is supposed to be here shown; and hence this muse may be considered *ἐπὶ ῥαβδῷ δαφνῆς ἀδελν*. The sleeve of her mantle resembles that of Terpsichore at Herculaneum, and of two others in the apotheosis of Homer. The tunic of this kind, with a single sleeve, was styled *ἑτερομασχαλος*, and with one sleeve different from the other *ἐπωμης*. The animals on this plate have nothing precisely to appropriate them; but are, however, well designed.

The muse that next occurs is *Polymnia*, who, as presiding over

music and harmony, is distinguished by her lyre. Her head is capped with a diadem, crowned with pearls, like those on the muses of queen Christina, given by Maffei. The name is given *Polypnia* for *Polymnia*, just as *solepne* is often written for *solemne*.

The seventh plate exhibits Calliope in the moment of composing.

*Carmina Calliope libris heroïca mandat.*

Perhaps a passage in the Psalms would best explain her air and act: "While I was musing, the fire kindled, and at length I spake with my tongue." The two fingers of her right hand extended, which is frequent in bas-reliefs, Fulgentius thus describes: *Compositus in dicendi modum, erectis in iotam duobus digitis, tertium pollicem comprimens, ita verbis exorsus est.* This muse was the ninth, in the order of Hesiod, and considered as pre-eminent with Plato, she was the representative of universal harmony. The *pugillares*, or tablets at her side, which were characteristic of poetry alone, as the roll was of history, resemble those described by Ovid:

————— *Nec cedro charta notetur:  
Candida nec nigrâ cornua fronte geras;  
Felices ornent hæc instrumenta libellos.*

*Trist. eleg. I. 129.*

The artist having adopted the general order of Hesiod, in his ninth compartment deserts it. Hence Urania is placed by him the last of the muses, instead of being ranked as the eighth:—*Quia, post septem vagas quæ subjectæ sunt, stellifera sphaera, superposita proprio nomine cælum vocatur.* Macrob. Somn. Scip. lib. II. Analogous to this is an epigram in the Anthologia (21).

Ουρανὴ πολλὸν εὖρε, καὶ οὐρανίων χορὸν ἀστέρων—

so far as refers to her name, which was given her from *heaven*, ἀπο τοῦ οὐρανοῦ, to denote her as superintending the spheres. Her sole emblem is a bent branch, which M. Laborde supposes to signify a *radius*, or wand. The figure beneath her, he calls a season of the year, under the form of a child, and refers it, for explanation, to the games of the Circus, which constitute the subject of his ninth plate.

Availing himself of the light which this mosaic reflects, our author professes to illustrate the Roman Circus anew, and particularly those points which have been left most uncertain.

The games of the Circus he considers as coëval with Rome, and to have been at first simply chariot-races on the banks of the Tiber—the bounds of which were made by crossed swords, and the seats for the spectators of gradations of turf. It was at a festival of this kind, he asserts, that Romulus committed the rape of the Sabines, who had been attracted by the novelty of the sight. Become periodical under the kings his successors, Tarquin the elder caused an inclosure of wood to be set up for their celebration in the valley of Murcia, between the Aventine and Palatine mountains. This building was afterwards called from its extent *The Circus Maximus*, it, in the time of Pliny, being so capacious as to contain two hundred and sixty thousand persons; though now not a vestige



remains by which its site can be known. Besides this there were at Rome ten others, the most considerable of which was the Flaminian Circus. From the new ones constructed by the emperors, and others embellished, an example was given, which became too prevalent even for the zeal of Christians to abolish, in the last times of the empire. *Panem et circenses* was the cry of the multitude; and the populace often passed in the Circus the whole night as well as day, exposed to wind and rain, without retiring to their food. *Eis templum, et habitaculum, et concio, et spes omnis, Circus est maximus.* The same passion was predominant in the provinces, whence three Circuses were established in Spain, which M. Laborde intends to advert to in his *Voyage Pittoresque*.

In describing the general plan of the Circus, it is remarked that its form was always an oblong square, at least thrice the length of its breadth. The two largest sides were terminated by a semicircle, which formed the contour of the inclosure, and rows of seats for spectators: the fourth side, named the oppidum, and which contained the *carceres*, or stations of the cars, was an arc of a circle. Having particularly described the interior divisions, and referred, for exemplifications, to two plates of this work, the author proceeds to the pomp of the Circus, the place of the prætor, the *carceres* or goals, and various ornaments of the Circus. The researches under these heads affording the requisite information, M. Laborde successfully restores the Circus, as given in his ninth plate.

Having restored the mutilations which this Circus had sustained, and pointed out its differences from those published by Bianconi and Saint Non, he proceeds to illustrate the plate of the Course, confirming his remarks by pertinent citations; those relating to the colours of the opposite factions, are particularly curious; and, but for the length of the article, we would gladly insert them. A short description of the cars closes this division.

The horsemen, styled *singulatores* and *desultores*, are the subject of the twelfth plate. The former were the attendants on the cars, each having one (*κελης*) on horseback; the latter, those who leaped from horse to horse. The inscriptions—

M·VLPIO·VIATORI·EQVITI·SINGVLATORI·AVGVSTI

M·VLPIVS·EQVES·SINGVLATOR·AVGVSTI

—show, that M. Ulpus, here mentioned, was the *eques singulator*, or attendant on the emperor's car; whilst the following citations from Manilius, Propertius, and Flaccus, explain the feat performed by the *αποβαται*, or *desultores*:

*Nec non alterno desultor sidere tergo  
Quadrupedum.*

*Est etiam aurigæ species Vertumnus, et ejus  
Trajicit alterno qui leve pondus equo.*

*Comitumque celer mutator equorum  
Mæsus.*



The horse, in another compartment of this mosaic, being considered as destined for the course, leads to observations concerning the treatment which the animals set apart for that purpose experienced; and the subject of plate the fourteenth, exemplifying, according to M. Laborde, *the Seasons of the Year, as representing the Factions of the Circus*, opens to an ingenious elucidation of the main allegory of its whole emblematic design, which was to symbolise the course of the heavens. In conformity with this idea, it is affirmed that the Circus was consecrated to the sun, which in his annual progress passed through the twelve signs of the zodiac, signified by the twelve gates of the Circus—the car of the charioteer symbolising that of the god. Macrobius relates, that the statue of the sun in gold passed from the Egyptians to the Assyrians, under the form of a beardless young man; and that in his right hand raised a whip, which was the semblance he bore in the sacred pomp of Heliopolis, as well as the representation adopted by the Greeks and the Romans. Not only did the *quadrigæ* stand for his car, but the attendants on horseback figured, according to Cassiodorus, the star of the morning that preceded him. *Equi desultorii, per quos Circensium ministri missos nunciant exituros, luciferi præcursorias velocitates imitantur.* Lib. III. p. 56. The seven spaces of the arena indicated the seven planets; the four factions, the seasons of the year (Cassiodorus, *ubi supra*, Tertullian, &c.); of which, green signified the spring; red, the summer; blue, autumn; and white, winter.

The colours of the factions, as designed on the diptychs and conterniate medals, are noticed: on the sixteenth plate, the part of the Circus opposite the goals, in which the combats of gladiators were exhibited, is described; and on plate the seventeenth, two fragments in bas-relief of terra cotta, found near Velletri in 1784.

The comparison of the Hippodrome of Olympia with the Circus of Rome, founded on the representations of the eighteenth plate, opens to much learned and appropriate research, which is extended in the next division to illustrate the Centaur, as the representative genius of the games of the Circus. Discarding all expectation from the etymology of its name, in reference to the nature of this symbol, M. Laborde asserts, that the people of the east long used such celestial emblems before the Greeks adopted them, citing, to confirm his assertion, the zodiacs of Esné and Dendera, with the pagoda of Verdapetha. Scripture also is quoted, as affording authorities; but we can not see, in the passages adduced, (Isaiah, xiii. 21—xxxiv. 14.) the slightest relation to the subject. After adding the mention of a centaur on the ruins of Persepolis, he infers the figure to have been an attribute of divinity.

The extension of these forms among the Greeks is next traced, and various senses are ascribed to the different modes of representing them; after which, the principal monuments of centaurs that remain are classed under the different heads of—1. the centaurs of the zodiac, with those attached to the cars of Æsculapius, Bacchus, Hercules, &c. to celebrate their apotheosis; 2. the centaur warriors; and, 3. the Bacchic centaurs. In illustration of these

divisions, the monuments are mentioned on which the corresponding examples occur, and descriptions collected from various authors in consonance with them. The centaurs of Persepolis and the Egyptian zodiacs are again cited to prove the antiquity of wings attached to these forms; but, in the latter instance, this attribute will no more prove the antiquity of the temple in which they are so exhibited, than it would demonstrate the like appendage on the mosaic of Italica to have been coeval with the ruins of Persepolis. After all, however, we cannot admit the Persepolitan figure for a centaur.

The last general division of this volume being entitled *Researches on the Mosaic Painting of the Ancients, and the Monuments of this Kind which have not been published*, the author traces back its history to the earliest notices, and finds the first upon record in the Second Book of Kings; but that either the *החרש* or *המסגר* signified *painters in mosaic* appears to us an unwarranted assumption, inconsistent with the analogy of the context, which in our common version reads thus:—‘*All the men of might seven thousand, and craftsmen [carpenters, joiners, or chariot-builders] and smiths a thousand, all strong, apt for war, even them the king of Babylon brought captive to Babylon.*’ Ch. xxiv. 16. The next authority, from *Esther*, i. 6, we allow to be in point; but one of *anterior date*, at Tyre, he might have found in *Ezekiel*, xxviii. 13; which, from the illustration of it by Mr. Henley, in his notes on the *Caliph Vathek*, will be seen to correspond with the Persian mosaic the author hath cited. In imitation of these, which prevailed in the east, the Greeks had at first their pavements only painted; but by degrees the former were adopted:—*Pavimenta originem habent inter Græcos elaborata arte picturæ ratione, donec lithostrota expulere ea.* This we have from Pliny. These pavements, however, were simply of *tesserae*, and not cubes of glass as Furieti supposed, which were considered as the perfection of the art, and introduced in the time of Augustus. To this species of mosaic the poet Nilus adverted, when representing a satyr as amazed to see his form thus composed (*Epig. Græc. lib. iv.*); and such, according to Pliny, were the pavements of the celebrated Sozus\*:—*Celeberrimus fuit in hoc genere Sozus, qui Pergami stravit quem vocant asaroton æcon.* L. xxxvi. c. 60. Statius, in describing the precincts of the Tibur, alludes to this kind of flooring, in terms similar to those referred to in *Ezekiel*, of Tyre.

*Monstravere solum, varias ubi picta per artes  
Gaudet humus, superatque † novis asarota figuris.*

SILV. I. 3. 55.

That this art became general in Greece, is proved from Athenæus, lib. xii. 542; Casaubon. Animad. in Ath. c. 11, p. 851; and a trait of Diogenes, strongly characteristic of these ornaments of

\* The doves of the Capitol have been supposed of this artist; but though Winkelmann and others have discredited the notion, it is, notwithstanding, to be considered the best fragment of antiquity that remains of the kind.

† In other copies *suberantque*.—REV.



the Greeks, is introduced, which relates that this philosopher, spitting in the face of a man who was showing him his house, apologised by saying, that it was impossible to find a dirty place, the wall being covered with superb pictures, and the floor variegated with precious little cubes. This species of ornament was transferred also to ships. Hiero king of Syracuse built one, which exhibited the whole fable of the Iliad, so composed. This vessel, built by Archimedes, was presented to Ptolemy king of Egypt, and probably suggested the idea of that constructed by Ptolemy Philopater, ornamented with a grotto; the figures in mosaic. From the Greeks the art passed on to the Romans, according to Pliny, before the war with the Cimbri, but did not flourish till the time of Sylla, who constructed a mosaic in the temple of Fortune at Præneste, which M. Laborde thinks might have been that of Palestrina. Cicero is cited as writing directions from England, whilst accompanying Cæsar on his second expedition, to his brother at Rome, on the decoration of his house and pavements in mosaic. (*Ad Quint. frat. lib. iii. epist. 1 and 3.*) Lucan places them amongst the ornaments in the palace of Cleopatra :

*Purpureusque lapis, totaque effusus in aula  
Calcabatur onyx.*

Lib. X. v. 117.

and Seneca complains, that there was no walking but upon precious stones.

The application of glass to this purpose became common in the age of Augustus, and served to perfect the art, which was then more complex, and assumed different names. The four principal ones, exclusive of the *musive* or *mosaic*, which belong to later times, and only used as proper to walls, are:—those termed *sectilia*, which were made of marble slabs, in large compartments:—the *secta*, corresponding to transverse indentations, or what the French denominate *parquets de marbre*:—*tessellata*, or *quadratoria*, small cubes of glass or marble, forming the true discrimination of mosaic:—and the *vermiculata*, consisting of the same *tesserae*, but so named from the designs they represent.

The provinces of the empire adopted this species of ornament; and whilst we see in the Gospel of St. John that the tribunal of Pilate was placed on a floor of this sort, so the throne of God in the Revelation, on a sea of crystal, implies a pavement of glass thus formed. Various notices of mosaic pavements are collected, and brought down to the latest times. The ancient mosaic pavements still extant at Rome are described; and, in particularising those of the Capitol, M. Laborde states it as his opinion, that the celebrated one of Palestrina was meant to exhibit Egypt receiving Augustus as its master. This he infers from the purple paludamentum of the conqueror, his oaken crown, and the bucklers evidently Roman; adding that this conquest took place at the overflow of the Nile, which is represented in all its circumstances, and the necessary parts of the picture\*.

\* Augustus took Alexandria at the beginning of August, as the *Fasti Prænestini* show.



The mosaics of Switzerland and Germany are next mentioned, and those of England immediately follow. In stating, however, what he has found on this head, M. Laborde is far from being accurate; for, with the work of Mr. Lysons before him, and which served for the model of his own, he has committed more blunders in transcribing mere names, than any other Frenchman we have hitherto known. For Lysons, he gives *Leyssons*; Townley, *Taunley*; Woodchester, *Wondchester*, &c. &c. The mosaics of France come next, and those of Spain in succession. These are followed by additional plates, executed in the same exquisite style as those that precede them, and accompanied with brief elucidations.

We cannot close our account of this work without observing that, independently of the coloured plates of the pavement, it is enriched with engravings of medals, or other monuments of antiquity, which, being pertinent to the subject, tend considerably to heighten our expectation of his promised *Voyage*; and, in conclusion, we take the liberty of recommending, that, though the ornamental part of the work should require the plates to be executed on the same scale with these, we hope, for the accommodation of his readers, M. Laborde will see the necessity of printing the text on a much reduced page.

ART. IV.—*Mémoires de l'Institut National des Sciences et des Arts.*

*Memoirs of the National Institute of Sciences and Arts. (Continued from Vol. 35, p. 500.)*

WE proceed to a continuation of vol. III. of the class of Moral and Political Sciences, of which we have already noticed the first three memoirs.

‘IV. On Ostracism. By M. Baudin (of the Ardennes).’

Of the memoirs of the present author, this is perhaps the last which will ever fall into our hands. He has paid the debt of nature; and we dilated, in our last Appendix, on the notice of his life and writings, with which he has been honoured by his colleagues of the National Institute. It has been long since observed by Montesquieu, that the establishment of *ostracism* ought to be scrutinised by the regulations of political rather than of civil law. This observation, remarks M. Baudin, is an incontestable truth. The law which would introduce such an institution belongs to political and not to civil order; it enters into the fundamental organisation of society, and not into the particular regulations of distributive justice.

‘Ostracism,’ says our author, ‘so far as history informs us of its use and application, was, 1st, a result of the reciprocity essential to the social contract, as well as to all other contracts: whence as every associating member, at least in ordinary and peaceable times, is master of his own person, and at liberty to break off and retire from the society to which he belongs, the society itself

should possess an equivalent power towards its individual members. 2dly, It being the interest of the body politic to maintain at one time general liberty and tranquillity, when either are menaced by an extraordinary ascendancy acquired by any citizen over his compatriots, it should seem that the threatened evils could not too speedily be prevented by the exile of the person who menaced them. 3dly, An exile of this description not only excludes all idea of criminality; but it may even offer to ambition itself a kind of glory, and to virtue a brilliant testimony of esteem.'

Our author examines the justice and propriety of the institution of ostracism under these three different characters; and proves, progressively, that the reciprocity on which it is supposed to exist, between individuals and the body at large, is altogether nugatory; that it can never be justified by considerations of public interest; and that, instead of suppressing the popular fame, and consequent danger to the state, produced by the possession of superior talents, by adding to the former it must necessarily aggrandize the latter, and of course prove in this instance altogether as impolitic as unjust. So much for the institution of ostracism in pure democracies, or those in which every citizen has an opportunity of giving his personal vote. Among those in which the representative system prevails, it must stand upon a still feebler foundation: for the security of every individual being the sole cause of the establishment of such a system, and the transfer of such power, it cannot possibly be contended that the individuals of a state could surrender that very security of their persons into the hands of their representatives, the preservation of which is the sole object for which such representative system was ever tolerated. Having taken a cursory view of three of the principal republics of antiquity, M. Baudin thus apostrophises his countrymen in his conclusion.

'If we wish to imitate those celebrated people so worthy the admiration of our own as well as of former ages, let us adopt with penetration the peculiar advantages of each: the frugality of Sparta, without the sanction of theft, when committed with dexterity: the love of our country which distinguished the Romans, without their tribunates and their excesses; the atticism of the Athenians, but without the institution of an ostracism.'

'V. Observations on the Ethics (*La Morale*) of Aristotle; with a Translation of the Chapter or Treatise on Liberality, b. IV. c. 1. By M. Champagne.'

M. Champagne is indignant that Aristotle should be so little known, and the Greek language so little studied, in his own country. As to the latter observation, we have had frequent occasion to lament the same defect ourselves, even while noticing the memoirs of this very Institute. What little we have beheld of Greek erudition has been generally common-place and superficial; yet apparently extended with considerable labour, and introduced before the reader with a pomp and vanity which cannot but excite the laughter of every real scholar. Such being the fact, with regard to a knowledge of the Greek language in general



among our neighbours, it cannot be surprising that Aristotle should have been more neglected than any other Grecian writer, in consequence of the greater obscurity of his style, his sententious brevity, and total neglect of every kind of ornament. The observations of M. Champagne, which are perspicuously arranged, but contain nothing new, are followed by a version of the Stagirite's chapter on Liberality, which, we have reason to believe, is introduced into these memoirs as a specimen of a complete translation of his Ethics—a work upon which our memoirist has been employed for some time, and which, if it possess the merit of the present paper, cannot fail of being an acceptable present to his countrymen. If mere prose translations, however, be admissible into the printed labours of the National Institute, each department, instead of publishing a volume once a year, may easily increase its number to one for every month.

‘VI. On the Influence of the dietetic Regimen of a Nation on its political State. By M. Toulangeon.’

While the generality of statistical speculators have endeavoured to resolve the political strength or weakness of a nation, its rise or fall, into the system of its legislation, the continual action of its moral or political opinions, or the effects of its climate, M. Toulangeon assumes a new ground, and attempts to analyse the whole of these effects into the question of its living upon *pudding* or *beef*. Every true Englishman will join him in giving the preference to the latter at the important hour of dinner, provided the two must necessarily be separated from each other: but few philosophers, even among Englishmen themselves, will equally join him in the general positions or deductions of his theory. ‘The political strength of a nation (observes he) does *not* consist in its population.’ To prove this principle, he instances the myriads of inhabitants in India, who have always fallen a prey to the first occupier of its different provinces. Population *alone*, we admit, will not repel an invader: it is an engine that requires hands to set it in motion;—but when an artist is once found capable of wielding that enormous engine, population then becomes a source of political strength—so powerful, that nothing can resist its impetus.

‘To maintain a hundred men, who are not employed in agriculture, with wheat or rice, it is necessary to employ the labour of, at least, the same number of one hundred men who are solely devoted to this occupation; to maintain a hundred men with the flesh of domestic animals who feed gregariously, two or three men and a boy are sufficient, for the safeguard and protection of such animals.’

But such animals want more than protection; they require food, like man: the same agricultural labour must procure it for them; and, number for number, they consume it in an infinitely greater proportion. As to the rest, M. Toulangeon proves himself miserably uninformed upon the comparative estimate both of animal and vegetable foods, and of the manual toil necessary to procure either,



He calculates that mankind are capable of subsisting, and actually do subsist, at half the expense upon animal food below that of vegetable. Now it is well known to every farmer, and indeed to every housekeeper in this country, that animal food constitutes the most expensive diet that can be reared; and it is a fact well ascertained, that, while an acre of potatoes will produce nearly seventeen thousand meals, an acre of wheat nearly three thousand, an acre of good pasturage grass, converted into animal food, will not yield more than two hundred and thirty. Our author's supposition therefore, that England, with eight millions of inhabitants, has been able to hold the balance against France with three times that number, in consequence of her being principally sustained with animal food—which requires so much smaller a portion of manual labour than the production of grain, the general food of his own countrymen, and of course leaves a more considerable surplus of hands for the use of government—is altogether intenable; as is also his conception that the powers both of the body and mind are fortified in a superior degree by the British than by the French dietetic regimen; and that hence the inhabitants of England excel those of France in the boldness of their commercial speculations, the soundness of their judgement, the strength of their muscles, the extent of their domestic ease, their national power, and public prosperity. Our neighbours of Scotland and Ireland, while they are as brave in the field as those of England, are also as intelligent and enterprising at home; yet the common diet of both consists as largely of vegetables as that of the French; while the Germans, who consume more animal food than ourselves, are by no means pre-eminent in those qualifications, either of body or mind, which are ascribed in this memoir to an animal regimen. M. Toulangeon has wandered from the common-place paths of the political economists who have preceded him; but he certainly has not struck out a road which is freer from entanglement and error.

VII. Dissertation on Roman Colonies and Municipalities. By M. Bouchard.

This is an elaborate and well-regulated essay. It is divided into four parts. In the first, the author treats of the formation of Roman colonies and municipalities (*municipia*): the one consisting of voluntary migrations of Roman citizens from the capital—whether soldiers or persons of other descriptions, escorted by public authority into definite situations—to repeople an old or establish a new city; every emanation being preceded by an agrarian law, which decided the amount of territory the colony should possess; and in what manner, to whom, and by whom, the different shares into which it was partitioned should be allotted; and the other, including alone those states or cities which, either fearful of falling into the gigantic arms of the Romans, had confederated with them against their enemies; or, although completely conquered and at the mercy of the victors, in consequence of express stipulations, or an occasional spirit of generosity, were suffered to retain their liberty, property, and a great variety of their civil regulations, under the direct protection and superintendence of the conquerors themselves. The second part of this dissertation points out other

differences between the colonies and municipalities of the Romans, independently of their first formation; the chief of which, however, consisted in the diversity of their religions and codes of civil law: the latter preserving the laws and religious rites of their ancestors, anterior to their connexion with Rome; while the former, being themselves descendents from the imperial city, introduced into the new establishment the whole civil and religious system of the parent state. In part the third, our essayist examines the names and orders of the different magistrates, by whom these ramifications from the capital were respectively governed. He here justly observes, that the Romans felt most sensibly, in the midst of their greatness, that whatever could be brought to resemble themselves might be easily united with them; and that conformity of laws and customs is the strongest bond by which a conquered people can be preserved in subjection. Hence, continues he, they not only seconded the ambition of those of their colonies who were anxious to acquire such similarity, but established a decree that their rites, their language, their sacrifices, their priests, their festivals, their magistracies, their dress, their symbols, their badges of honour, their customs, their laws, should be universally adopted; and that every thing should be modelled from the mother country, in order that this emanation from the majesty of Rome, which was reflected as in a mirror, might impress with respect even the most distant provinces. In the fourth part, our author advances a step further still, and proves from a variety of Roman writers themselves, from ancient monuments, coins, and other authentic records, that these colonies and municipalities did not content themselves with resembling the parent city in their inferior magistracies, which they adopted upon their first institution, but dared, in progression, to assume the names of prætors, consuls, decemvirs, and dictators.

‘VIII. Extract from a Memoir on the Retreat of the Gauls, after they had rendered themselves Masters of the Capitol. By M. Pierre-Charles Lévesque.’

M. Lévesque is dissatisfied with the narrative which Livy has given us of this transaction, which, it must be confessed, has something fabulous and even contradictory in its complexion: and he brings forward Polybius in his support, who is well known to have attributed the retreat of the Gauls not to the sudden appearance of Camillus, but to the circumstance of their own country having been invaded by a neighbouring power.

‘IX. Extract from a Memoir on certain Acceptations of the Word *Nature*. By the same.’

In every language we meet with words of an indeterminate sense, and which serve to express ideas widely at variance from each other. Such words, however, in the common concerns of life, produce no embarrassment; but the effect is very different in the discussion of philosophical subjects, in which precision is the grand point to be obtained; and men have frequently disputed through mere want of comprehending each other's meaning. In selecting the term *nature*, as an exemplification of this remark, our memoirist observes, that it sometimes signifies *every thing*—the



whole universality of matter, and the power which moves and modifies it, in which idea it pre-supposes supreme intelligence. He next inquires, What then ought we to understand by the term *man of nature* (*homme de la nature*), or, in plainer English, *man in a state of nature*? and at what point does he cease to continue such? And, in this instance, it is very obvious that we attribute to the term *nature* an idea almost contradictory to that which we allot in the former: for the *man in a state of nature*, instead of being supposed to partake of this supreme intelligence, is conceived to be almost without intelligence, and ideas of any kind; and the moment he acquires some small portion of such intelligence, we assert him to be *in a state of nature* no longer. Then again, we arrive at the expression, *the religion of nature*, or *natural religion*, by which we seem in some measure to revert to the first sense; but which is nevertheless so indefinite an expression, that almost every one understands by it what he pleases. We have also *the law of nature*, a phraseology which is liable to nearly the same objection, and is scarcely rendered explicit by M. Lévesque's own definition or description of it. We agree with him, however, that it would be a labour well worthy of ideologists to assign to philosophic language all the precision of which it is susceptible.

X. Extract from an Essay on the numismatic History of Roman Legislation. By M. Bouchand.'

We perceive no great degree of erudition in this extract: the medals to which it is confined are but few, and not very important; while one or two of them are of doubtful interpretation. We admit nevertheless that there are scarcely any kinds of erudition upon which the science of the medalist may not throw light, or at least scatter flowers which may decorate its paths.

XI. Memoir on Discoveries yet to be made in the Pacific Ocean. By M. Buache.'

M. Buache has studied his subject attentively; and, though he might have derived considerable assistance from publications in the English language of a later date than any he seems to be acquainted with—especially Mackenzie's Voyage up the North-western Coast of America, and that of the Missionary Society along the Friendly Islands—his conjectures may be profitably perused, and his directions in many instances advantageously followed by the experienced navigator. He justly supposes that captain Cook is indebted for much of his celebrity to his having carefully studied the observations of navigators who had preceded him, and collected all the information he could obtain from both ancient and modern charts; and he fully believes, that, if a premature death had not hurried him away in the midst of his triumphant career, he would have re-discovered and visited afresh every spot which had been traced and surveyed before him; since, like Bougainville, he had detected the very gross errors which had hitherto crept into the positions assigned to newly-traced territories, and was well aware that the chief point in geography is to ascertain the situation of objects with exactitude and precision. This, however, is but a feeble eulogy on the merits of our illustrious countryman: for, from what he actually accomplished,



had his life been prolonged, he must have been as greatly celebrated for original discoveries, as the re-tracing of territories which have been long lost in oblivion.

Having noticed the labours of La Pérouse, d'Entrecasteaux, Etienne Marchand, and several other circumnavigators of high and deserved reputation, who, since the period of Cook and Bougainville, have added to the list of newly surveyed tracts and accurate measurements, M. Buache advances that there is yet a vast field to penetrate, and unknown territories which still promise interesting discoveries; and offers a variety of observations upon the principal groups of islands which have hitherto been ascertained, having been induced to engage in such a task in consequence of a project for a new voyage round the world, proposed by the Society of Natural History: a voyage, however, which for obvious reasons has been postponed to a happier period. The groups of islands to which his observations are principally directed, are, first, those surveyed by the Spaniards in 1537, in a voyage undertaken by Grijalva and Alvarado—secondly, those discovered by J. Gaëtan in 1542—thirdly, the Archipelago of the Carolines, which alone consist of upwards of a hundred, and to which no name has yet been allotted—fourthly, several islands which are said to have been discovered by the Spaniards along the coast of Peru, such as Davis Land, the isle of Juan Fernandez, and those denominated the Fontacias—fifthly, the islands indicated by Quiros, Cook, La Pérouse, and other navigators, in consequence of the natural course of islands actually visited, and of which several have been already traced.

To these groups of islands it would be easy to add many others, of considerable moment to be studied in a voyage of this kind, and with which our author does not appear to be acquainted. We perceive, however, by a note at the close of this memoir, that he has just obtained possession of Mr. Arrowsmith's new and excellent nine-sheet chart, which supersedes the necessity of the observations we had intended. We will just observe to M. Buache, that he will find the Musquito islands, and indeed all those which constitute a new part of the Archipelago of the Carolines, laid down with peculiar accuracy. To this memoir are added two charts, clearly engraven, and sufficiently explanatory of the author's views.

'XII. Historic Notice on the Savages of North America. By M. Bougainville.'

The writer of this notice is well qualified for his task, having been actively engaged in the American war which began in Canada in 1755, under the command of the marquis de Vaudreuil, and especially from his having been adopted by one of the chief tribes of the natives, who at that time confederated with the French. The notice before us, however, is but the first memoir of a series which it is the intention of M. Bougainville to present successively upon this subject; and it extends no further than to a few remarks on the Iroquois, or five warrior nations. At present, therefore, we merely announce it in its order, meaning to dwell more largely upon it when the series is completed.

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We proceed to volume the third of the Class of Literature and

Polite Arts, of which we have already examined the history and first memoir.

‘ II. The Old Man of Ancenis, a Poem on the Death of General Hoche. By M. Chenier.’—Our readers cannot have forgotten the name of this celebrated officer, nor the national pomp with which his funeral was conducted. The dirge, which was equally spirited and elegant, was written, if we recollect aright, by M. Chenier; and the present poem affords another laurel, planted by the same hand upon the warrior’s grave. It is a violent philippic in rhyme against England, for the activity with which she engaged in the late war, and especially the unfortunate and impolitic descent at Quiberon. The liberality and truly pacific conduct of general Hoche in this quarter are well known; and we too can unite in the panegyric of a soldier who combines generosity with victory, and receives as friends those whom he might have condemned as traitors.

‘ Défaits par la valeur, vaincus par la clémence.’

‘ III. Second Memoir on the Pelasgi. By M. Dupuis.’—The first essay on this subject we have already noticed in the Appendix to our 34th vol. p. 517. Our author has not, however, even in the present paper, exhausted his subject. The individual point to which he now confines himself is the origin of this bold and ingenious people: and the general result of his observations is, that the worship of the Italian and Grecian Pelasgi is obviously connected with that of Upper Egypt and Ethiopia, countries of highly ancient civilisation, and which have rather communicated to the Greeks and Hesperians their religious institutions, than borrowed such establishments from them. It is in the worship of Pan, continues he, of Hercules, and of Perseus, that we principally perceive the chain which unites the religious traditions of these different peoples. The vast power of the cities of Thebes and Meroë in former times, which extended their empire through all Asia, and over the shores of Ionia, as well as throughout Libya, in some degree ascertains the influence which these nations of Upper Egypt and Ethiopia have had in the civilisation of the southern and western countries of Europe. This communication does not, however, appear to have been direct, but secondary, and by means of the commerce of the intermediate tribes scattered over the northern and north-western coasts of Africa, who founded establishments in Greece, in the Archipelago, in Sicily and Italy, and, perhaps, conjointly with the Assyrians, in Spain; which intermediate tribes were principally the Atlantes and the Cyrenians. These, from the complexion of the traditions common to them all, appear to have originated from the sources of the Nile: whence our author concludes, that to this quarter we are to look for the greater part of the sciences and sacred institutions of Greece, transported thither by a maritime people who inhabited the coasts of the Mediterranean and the Atlantic Ocean—a mixed people, amalgamated by the trade of the Phœnicians, Assyrians, Indians, and other oriental tribes, who trafficked along these coasts. And this was the people which was known in Greece under the general denomination of the Pelasgi, or trans-marine emigrators.

We have frequently of late had occasion to state our own opinion



upon this subject, which, in few words, is, that Babylonia constituted the cradle of all the religious institutions and sciences of both Egypt and Greece; and that the Pelasgi were a colony of adventurous Cuthites, diverging, after their first exodus from their native country, to a vast variety of points, and hence, in future ages, traced, by name, by sacred rites, customs, and traditions, at immense distances from each other. This conjecture we have already had occasion to advance; and we see nothing in the present memoir to induce us to relinquish our opinion.

IV. Second Memoir on the Marine of the smaller Vessels of the Ancients, and the Use which may be made of them in naval Tactics. By M. David Le Roi.—We readily paid our tribute of approbation to M. Le Roi's first memoir on this subject, in the Appendix to our 31st vol. p. 497. The present is divided into two sections, in the first of which the author examines the form of these vessels, and, in the second, their advantageous application to modern uses. He confines himself throughout to the intermediate period, which extends from the origin of the Punic wars to the battle of Actium, as the most interesting epoch in the whole history of the marine of the ancients. We are, at present, but little acquainted with these vessels of the second order; and there are few scholars who can ascertain the real difference between the ancient *liburnæ*, *lembi*, and *phaseli*. The term *triremes* has been equally applied to vessels with three rows of oars and with three oars alone, two on the one side and one on the other; and the term *quinqueremes* has been subject to a similar confusion. Our author, after pointing out the absurdity of such a description of vessels which were of eminent utility in battle, and possessed of remarkable swiftness, proceeds, upon the authority of Polybius, to affirm that the *triremes*, *quadriremes*, *quinqueremes*, instead of being vessels of three, four, or five oars alone, had three, four, and five tiers of rowers on either side, each tier using an oar of different length from the other; and that such was the number of rowers in a tier or file, that the *quinqueremes* did not contain less than one hundred and twenty in each vessel. The *phaselus*, the *lembus*, and the *liburna*, were all worked along in the same manner with different files of rowers, according to their magnitude; and they merely varied from each other in their respective proportions. The common proportion observed by the ancients, in their construction of ships of war, was to allow them eight times the length of their breadth; while, in those of commerce, they gave to their length only four times their breadth, or, in other words, made them half as wide again as the former: now, as we learn from Appian that the ten three-oared *phaseli*, which Octavius obtained for his brother from Marc Antony, were galleys of a mixed form, between the long vessels and those of burden, it follows therefore, observes M. Le Roi, that the *phaselus* must have been six times as long as it was wide. This, however, does not follow exactly. The words of Appian are, *Επιμικτοὶς ἐκ τῶν πολεμικῶν νηῶν, καὶ μαχηρῶν*, 'being a mixture between ships of war and merchant vessels:' but this mixed make may be of various descriptions, and probably, though it approximated in the present instance towards the latter, did not deviate so largely from the former as is contended for upon M. Le Roi's statement. The *lembus* and *liburna* only de-



viated from the *phaselus* and from each other by a similar variation in their construction.

As to the use to which these smaller vessels, or vessels of the second order, may be applied in modern times, the author conceives that they may, in many instances, be advantageously employed in the coasting trade, since, from their superior length, if assisted with lower and tighter sails than those commonly made use of, they must necessarily have a swifter track, and would cut along with considerable speed in the midst of calms, in which our sloops of the present day are almost immoveable. He observes that the English have of late given a considerable portion of this elongated form to their custom-house cutters; and hence the velocity of which they are possessed, and the ease with which they overtake any vessel they are in pursuit of. But the chief benefit to be derived from the use of such lengthened galleys, and for which the paper was principally written, is in the case of gun-boats, to be employed against the English coasts whenever an invasion is intended. The *phaselus*, with its full complement of rowers, is the only vessel, in the opinion of M. Le Roi, which has a certainty of effecting such a descent, and of deciding the fate of the French colonies (the paper was composed during the late war), not at the extremity of the Ocean or the Indian Sea, but within a few leagues from the mother country. As the French gun-boats destroyed at Havre do not appear to have been of this model, we have reason to suppose that the present plan did not meet with the approbation of the chief consul. For the rest, should M. Le Roi eventually succeed in building a fleet of Roman galleys, and making Roman sailors of his countrymen, he would still find that he had not Carthaginians to contend with when fighting with Englishmen.

V. Third and last Memoir on the Marine of the Ancients, and particularly on a Bas-relief published by Winckelmann, representing the Fragment of a Galley. By M. Le Roi.—This is a continuation of the same subject, in which the author undertakes to controvert the opinion which was first of all, we believe, advanced by our own countryman Bayers, and afterwards adopted by Winckelmann and several others, that the galley of which a fragment is exhibited in this bas-relief, published at Rome, 1767, in the 'Monumenti antichi inediti,' was one of the largest engaged in the battle of Actium; and that there is every reason to suppose it constituted the admiral of Cleopatra's fleet, of which she made a present to Marc Antony; and which, from this circumstance, we are told by Plutarch, was named the Antoniad. M. Le Roi conceives, on the contrary, that the vessel here described could not be more than a ten- or an eleven-oared barge, while he conjectures the Antoniad to have been of an ampler bulk, and to have most resembled, among modern vessels, the xebec or felucca of the Mediterranean. In elucidation of his opinion, he has subjoined a plate, without which we cannot enter into the dispute: and he concludes his memoir with a few additional observations upon the application of the ancient marine to modern purposes.

VI. Memoir on a German Book entitled *Die Geuerlicheiten und ensteils der Geschichten des loblichen, streyparen, und hochberümpften helds und ritters Herz, Teüurdanckhs*; that is, *The Adventures and sublime Exploits of that illustrious, celebrated, and warlike Hero,*

Sir Teüurdank; in which is examined the Question whether this Book were printed with moveable Types or on wooden Plates. By M. Camus.'—The emperor Maximilian I. who flourished towards the latter end of the fifteenth and the beginning of the sixteenth century, had a considerable taste for letters, and especially for publications containing any proofs of chivalry, or romantic adventures; and, in conjunction with several writers of similar imagination, whom he invited to his court, composed a variety of publications of this description. The Adventures of Sir Teüurdank have generally been conceived one of this number; though, as the name of Melchior Pfinking, provost of St. Alban at Mentz, and of St. Sebald at Nuremberg, appears alone at the close of its dedication to Charles, king of Spain, &c. as also at the termination of an epistle appended to this romantic poem, and addressed to the same prince, Pfinking himself has not unfrequently been regarded as the author. Panzer and Herissant have endeavoured to reconcile these antagonist opinions, by attributing to the emperor the first conception of the poem, the plan of the work, and even a part of the versification, while they allow its general execution and finish to the provost; and in this sentiment our author concurs. The work itself has passed through many editions, and has been translated into a variety of European languages: it is almost needless, therefore, to add, that it long enjoyed a very high degree of repute, and may even now be perused with amusement and information. The two first are the only editions here investigated, both bearing the name of John Schoensperger the elder as printer; and dated, in the former instance, Nuremberg, 1517, and, in the latter, Augsburg, 1519. These editions differ but little from each other, and are both of them exquisitely beautiful, in respect of their paper, which is vellum—their type, which is ornamental demi-Gothic—the regularity of the workmanship—and the colour of the ink. From the length of the flourishing strokes, by which one character is intermixed, though not confused, with another, Fournier and many other curious antiquarians have decided that these characters are strictly stereotype, or, in other words, that every page consists of a distinct wooden engraving. M. Camus opposes this decision: he urges the existence of similar strokes extending both above and below several of the adjoining letters in the Italic press, and especially in that of the Elzevirs; and, from the uniformity of these ornamental characters themselves, he thinks there is a far greater probability of their being the produce of the same moveable type, than of the variable hand of the engraver, who would have more frequently exercised his fancy upon new forms of decoration. Several specimens of the typography are added, the engravings of which—for here, at least, we have plates—are well executed. M. Camus, however, has ably supported his opinion; and we believe it to be the most correct. We should have stated that both these earlier editions are also ornamented with a variety of exquisite prints, from paintings designed for the purpose by Albert Durer, Hans Burgmann, and Hans Schufelin.

VII. *Memoir on Persepolis.* By M. Mongez.'—The ruins of that celebrated city, called, in the language of the modern natives, Tchebel-minâr, are well worthy the observations of the traveler and the researches of the antiquary; and may be compared, both for their



riches and extent, with the most precious remains of Egyptian, Greek, and Roman cities. The present is a valuable and elaborate essay upon this subject, divided into five distinct sections, which we can only enumerate, without critically investigating. In the first M. Mongez offers the history of Persepolis: in the second he makes some comments on many of the modern authors who have written upon it: in the third he gives a description of it, as also of the neighbouring monuments of Nakschi Rostam: in the fourth he attempts to prove that the buildings, of which the ruins at Tchebel-minâr consist, were never erected by an Egyptian colony: and, fifthly, that these ruins are the remains of a palace, and not of a temple, meaning, by the latter term, an enclosed and covered building, such as were the greater number of temples among the Greeks and Romans. The general result of his observations is, that the palace of Persepolis was built by Cyrus; that Alexander burned only a part of it; and that the city of Persepolis, now denominated Isstthakar, was never destroyed till attacked by the Mahomedan generals at the period in which Islamism began to spread over Persia.

(To be continued.)

ART. V.—*Annals de Chymie. Tomes XXXIX et XL. Paris.*

*Annals of Chemistry. (Continued from Vol. XXXV. p. 571.)*

AS our limits would not enable us to conclude the thirty-ninth volume in the last Appendix, we shall now pursue the remaining articles.

M. Cavezalli's process for extracting sugar from honey, as described in M. Duburgua's Letter, depends on clarifying the honey, and saturating its acid, with powdered egg-shells. The proportion of sugar obtained is not mentioned, and the process seems tedious as well as difficult. A very excellent paper on 'Clarification,' by M. Parmentier, does not admit of abridgement. The remarks on filtres of different kinds are truly valuable; and should we ever possess a scientific system of pharmacy, keeping pace with the improvements of chemistry—a work we almost despair of—this and similar articles, in the present collection, will, we trust, not be overlooked. To facilitate references, we may remark that a copious and accurate index to the first thirty volumes of the 'Annales' has been published. This period is, however, too distant; and perhaps the editors may find it convenient to publish a similar index at the conclusion of each twentieth volume.

M. Loysel's memoir 'on bleaching the Paste of Paper,' or paper in that state which it assumes when comminuted in the mill, is also valuable. M. Chaptal, we are informed, has greatly simplified the process of restoring paper and prints stained by age. M. Loysel preferred bleaching the magma to bleaching the rags whence it is obtained; since the white was hence more uniform, and not,



as in the former case, chiefly confined to the surface. The process is described with great minuteness, and depends, as may be supposed, on the action of oxygenated muriatic acid.

A valuable memoir by M. Vauquelin, 'on the Waters of Plombières,' follows. The taste is a little saltish, and the smell somewhat fœtid and sulphureous. The specific gravity is very little superior to that of common water. Each pint affords only a grain and  $\frac{1}{12}$  of carbonat of soda;  $\frac{1}{16}$  of a grain of sulphat of soda, and  $\frac{1}{2}$  of muriat of soda, with about  $\frac{1}{2}$  a grain of animal matter, and some inconsiderable proportions of flint and carbonat of lime. The flint is dissolved by the alkali as well as the animal matter, which resembles albumen, and gives the fœtid smell approaching to that of sulphur. The water, in its course, probably passes through the remains of some organised substances of an animal nature.

M. Hassenfratz replies to some remarks by M. Schmidt in Gilbert's 'Physical Annals,' in answer to the doubts suggested respecting the accuracy of the common methods of determining specific gravities. M. Hassenfratz's observations are, many of them, judicious, particularly on the different apparent densities of the same substance in mass and in powder, and on the causes which occasion this difference. The numerous and minute experiments they refer to, prevent us, however, from engaging in the detail, as does also the constant reference to an article not before us. We may add, that M. Hassenfratz has fully justified his former assertions; but that, in his inquiries respecting specific gravity, the experiments should be repeated with more pointed attention to the state of the substances examined, and a more philosophical discrimination of the nature of the fluid, compared with that of the body, than seem to have been employed.

M. Thenard's 'Notice' on the sebacic acid is instructive. This volatile suffocating acid seems to have escaped the examination of chemists, and they have only obtained a fixed acid, which resembles or contains the acetous, joined with the muriatic. Thus much only is ascertained in the memoir before us. The author proposes to follow the volatile part, which he seems to consider only as a gaseous form of the fat. But these remarks do not occur in either of the volumes before us.

The memoir 'on Galvanism,' by M. Gautherot, read to the National Institute, is not highly important. It relates chiefly to the effects of the Galvanic fluid, when the discs, interposed between the metals, are thin. The power is greater when these are thinner.

'New Reflexions on Medicated Wines,' by M. Parmentier, deserve attention. He expressed his disapprobation of this pharmaceutical form in one of the late volumes of the Annals, and now pursues the subject with great ability. By dissolving resinous or extractive matter, wines are decomposed; and, if that should not happen, the heat, required for the solution, hastens the acetous fermentation in the wine. The addition of spirit produces only a temporary change; and, if its proportion be increased, as in the new Brussels Pharmacopœia, to thirty-two parts, added to 192 of Spanish white wine, the preparation then becomes a tincture, and

different parts of the vegetable are dissolved. There are some circumstances in which wine may be a useful menstruum; and we could have wished that these had been more fully pointed out; viz. where the active matter consists of the extractive and resinous substance, in such proportions as to be taken up without decomposition. Ipecacuanha-wine, we know, is one of these; and we suspect that a useful preparation of jalap might be formed in the same manner.

We forgot to mention in its place a curious description of the optical phenomenon, 'the Mirage,' by M. Gorse, engineer of the department of the mouths of the Rhône, addressed to M. Monge, whose theory of that phenomenon we lately noticed.

MM. Biot and Cuvier's account of some properties of the Galvanic pile deserve attention; though several of their conclusions are sufficiently obvious. They covered the pile with a receiver, and found the air diminish in consequence of its action: the oxygen was absorbed, and the azote left behind. From other experiments, the oxygen, separated by the pile, appeared to augment the Galvanic effects; but, from repeating these experiments in a different form, it should seem that the Galvanic apparatus has an action peculiarly its own, independently of the external air; for the action of the pile takes place without the presence of the latter.

An ingot of metal was sent by the National Institute to commissioners appointed by the physical class, to ascertain whether it could be counterfeited, and of what it was composed. It appeared that, in 100 parts, fifty were silver; 45.7 copper, 4.0 arsenic, with 0.2656 of gold. Smaller fractions are omitted; and we must, of course, see that it may be easily counterfeited.

M. Thenard, in his 'Observations on the Preparations of Phosphates of Soda and Ammonia,' thinks the reason of the neglect of the former, as a purgative, is owing to its price, which, as the ingredients are cheap, is apparently unreasonable. He points out many inconveniences in the common process, and gives an improved one. It is, however, too long for an extract.

'Experiments and Observations on the Colour imparted by Fire to Paper on which Letters have been formed by Lemon-Juice, by M. Carradori of Prato.' This is a trifling little paper, but somewhat curious. All the vegetable acids, except cream of tartar, have this property, particularly 'white' (perhaps distilled) vinegar. It appears to be owing to the saccharated mucilage; for lemon-juice, deprived of this ingredient, will not act as a sympathetic ink; and a solution of sugar will produce the effect in a striking way. The heat of the sun had no power in changing the colour, which, in fact, is owing to an incipient combustion. Saccharated mucilage burns before the paper, and the base of the hydrogenous gas being separated, the carbone becomes conspicuous. Sugar burns more readily than other substances, in consequence of its superior susceptibility of heat. The addition of oxygen will produce the same effect as the abstraction of hydrogen; but, in this case, it is not the cause of the change of colour; for it takes place when the access of atmospheric air is prevented. A solution of gum-arabic is a similar ink, but more weak; and some of the milky juices, from the pro-



portion of gum which they contain, are equally changed in their colour by the access of heat. The solutions of gum resins and resinous extracts change in this manner from the access of air only; but this alteration is owing to the addition of oxygen. On the other hand, the change from heat is a test of a saccharine ingredient, while the property of expanding on the surface points out, with equal certainty, an oily or a resinous substance. We have long since shown resin to be an oily substance; and let us here, for a moment, simplify the view, by calling resin the most highly *vegetalised* matter, as the fibrin of the blood is the most highly *animalised*; the one owing to an excess of oxygen, the other to an excess of azote—the excrementitious parts, when in superabundance, of the respective systems.

We next find an abstract of a German work, by M. Lampadius, entitled ‘A Manual of an Analysis of Minerals.’ The author is professor of chemistry in the school of the mines at Freyberg; and his work is a valuable one. In the introduction, he gives some general rules, which regard the mechanical division, the choice of re-agents, the proper temperature, with other rules for filtering, lixiviating, &c. In the first part, the professor teaches the best method of preparing the different re-agents, in order to procure them in a state of utmost purity. In the second part, M. Lampadius instructs the student in the method of conjecturing the composition of minerals, in order to conduct the analysis most satisfactorily. He then proceeds to the provisional analysis of minerals, in the dry way, and afterwards to explain the more rigorous analysis of each class of minerals; taking his examples from the most intractable species. We shall add, from the work before us, the analysis of a new ore of uranium. It contains, of flint, 0.560; of uranium, 0.320; of iron, 0.074; and of alumine, 0.036. The loss amounted only to 0.01.

M. Dellatre’s first ‘Essay on the Acids usually sold’ relates to the muriatic acid only, whose strength is in the direct proportion of muriatic gas combined with the water. M. Paise, in his Observations on Barytes and Strontian, endeavours to show that the nitrat of barytes is capable of being decomposed by alkalis. This has occasioned a little dispute, in the modest form of a quære, or a suggestion, by one of the editors, B. D. (we suppose, B. Deyeux), and a more pointed opposition in the succeeding volume, by M. Dartigues, to which Paise has replied with little success. It is too minute, and, indeed, too uninteresting, an inquiry to detain us.

M. Trommdorf announces an ‘Universal Library of Chemical Literature,’ containing an analysis of German chemical works, and the most interesting publications of the chemists of other nations, particularly the French and English; and M. Chaussier has published a synoptic table of neurology, or a new nomenclature of anatomy, in imitation of the reform in the nomenclature of chemistry.

The fortieth volume of this valuable work (published in September, 1801, the first portion of the year X. \*) commences with new experiments on the spontaneous motions of different substances, on the approach or contact of each other. It is the con-



clusion of some experiments detailed in the twenty-fourth volume of the *Annals*, in reply to the observations of M. Carradori mentioned in the thirty-eighth volume. These experiments must, however, be examined in the different memoirs, and cannot be with advantage abridged. We may be allowed to remark, that our author thinks his experiments sufficient to prove the existence of an invisible intervening fluid; and that water is only necessary to the motions as a fluid, for which any other fluid may be employed. The substances that chiefly move on water, are ether, alcohol, acetic acid, water of ammonia, aqua-fortis, muriatic acid, &c. all of which are odoriferous: others therefore, in which a similar motion is observable, are supposed to be odoriferous in a less degree. The property, consequently, is not confined to fat oily substances, as Carradori has supposed. It is singular that linen, paper, starch, the finger, and any organised matter, or which preserves any remains of organisation, while it imbibes water, emits an invisible fluid, which repels the surrounding water, and moves bodies swimming in it.

M. Parmentier's 'Observations on the Substitution of Pearl Barley for Rice,' follow. These remarks are interesting, though the physiologist will probably differ from the chemist on the occasion. Rice is a seed undervalued, somewhat unjustly, by the author, as containing a very inconsiderable proportion of gluten; and barley is preferred, as possessing a larger share of that principle, as being of more easy cultivation, and subject to fewer accidents. Rice is considered as one degree, in the scale, above gum-arabic; but experience has proved it a more wholesome, and probably a more powerful, nutriment than barley. Some experiments, on the preparation of leguminous soups, in the manner of count Rumford, are subjoined.

'Observations on the Affinities of Earths to each other,' by M. Darracq. The essays of this able young chemist merit particular attention. In an early volume of the *Annals*, M. Guyton had remarked some singular appearances on mixing the different earths, which threw considerable doubt on the accuracy of various chemical analyses of earthy substances. M. Darracq finds different results from similar trials, and suspects that Guyton employed impure materials.

The same author corrects also the conclusions of M. Brugnatelli, respecting the use of the oxalic acid, as a re-agent to discover lime. The Italian chemist thought it an unfaithful criterion; but M. Darracq shows that it is only so when the calcareous neutrals are accompanied with an excess of their different acids.

The 'New Method of claying Sugars, proposed by M. Hapel Lachenaire,' is incapable of abridgement; and the review of the second edition of Bouillon Lagrange's *Manual of Chemistry*, in three volumes octavo, by M. Deyeux, needs not detain us, as we must soon examine the work in our own language. The review also of M. Sylvestre's Essay, on the means of rendering the æconomical arts in France more perfect, is not sufficiently interesting to induce us to enlarge on it.

M. Crell's Letter to Bouillon Lagrange, containing 'chemical

intelligence,<sup>2</sup> is, in many respects, interesting. The beryl of Siberia contains fifty-four parts of flint; twenty-four of alumine; fifteen of glucine; oxyd of iron, one; water, two; loss, 19.26. M. Klaproth has analysed the pharmacolite, and found 46.56 of arsenical acid; twenty-three of lime; 0.5 of oxyd of cobalt; six of flint and alumine; 22.5 of water. M. Hildebrandt found that both pure ammonia and its carbonat will dissolve copper, though denied by Haussman. The property in each depends on the access of air. Pure ammonia dissolves the blue and green oxyd of copper, and, without the contact of air, the colour is of a deep blue. This colour is not conspicuous with the metal in its reguline state, in consequence of its not absorbing oxygen.

M. Trommsdorf has analysed the red garnet of Greenland, which the prince of Gallitzin gave him. It contained flint, alumine, a little oxyd of iron, and zircone. The same author has constructed a Galvanic pile, consisting of 130 discs of copper, zinc, and wet cards. It produced violent convulsions, and very considerable sparks. Many of the metals, when reduced to leaves, were inflamed. Gold leaf, placed on the zinc, and touched with the copper wire, burnt with a crackling noise, and a very brilliant flame; silver burnt with a green flame; brass with a reddish blue; copper with an emerald green; zinc with a whitish blue; and tin with a reddish white. M. Trommsdorf thinks that he shall succeed even with larger masses, and speaks of constructing a pile with five or six hundred discs.

M. Jourdan de Clausthall has analysed the English fossil caoutchouc, which he found very similar to the vegetable; and thinks that its particles cannot be separated by any menstruum without decomposition. M. Basse de Hameln describes a process for obtaining a true muriatic æther. Muriat of soda is melted for an hour; then pulverised, and put into a tubulated retort with a long neck. The receiver is filled with rectified alcohol; and, when the lutes are dry, very concentrated sulphuric acid is added through the opening. The distilled fluid is rectified, by re-distilling it from a little caustic pot-ash. The properties of this æther are to swim on water, partly to dissolve in it, to be colourless, more volatile than other æther, to smell like garlic, and to taste not very differently, though not disagreeably.

M. Schaub has analysed the spinel, and found it to consist of seventy of alumine, fourteen of carbonic acid, eight of magnesia, with as much flint. Two kinds of kaolin, found at Aschaffembourg, contained chiefly flint, alumine, with some metallic oxyds, chiefly of iron.

The 119th number commences with a valuable paper, by M. Solomé, 'on the internal Temperature of Vegetables, compared with that of the Atmosphere.' Our readers will recollect that Mr. Hunter published, in the Philosophical Transactions, some observations on this subject; but they amounted to little more than hints and conjectures. M. Solomé goes further, and has prosecuted the inquiry by experiment; though much yet remains to be done. By immersing a thermometer into the body of a tree, eighteen inches in diameter, by a hole bored to the centre, when the temperature of the



air was at  $2^{\circ}$ ,  $5^{\circ}$ , and  $6^{\circ}$  above 0 (or the freezing point of Réaumur's scale), the degrees in the tree were at 9 and 10 respectively. When the heat of the air was  $26^{\circ}$ , that of the internal part of the tree was at  $15^{\circ}$ ; so that the vegetable heat preserves a mean, with respect to that of the air. At different times, the heat of the tree, in the middle of the day, was less than in the mornings and evenings of the same day, when the heat of the air was less. When the heat was below  $14^{\circ}$ , about  $64^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit, that of the vegetable was higher; when above  $14^{\circ}$ , lower; for, in general, the vegetable heat was never below,  $9^{\circ}$ , nor above  $19^{\circ}$ , while that of the atmosphere was from  $2^{\circ}$  to  $26^{\circ}$  in the same month. The temperature of the vegetable was often uniform at different parts of the day, and many days following, while that of the air was constantly changing. The mean vegetable temperature was about  $10^{\circ}$  ( $54\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit). Great and continued rains sink it considerably. We shall add, at present, no remarks on these facts. As the author observes, the experiments must be repeated, and greatly varied, before any certain conclusions can be drawn.

'An Essay on the Preparation of Phosphoric Æther,' by M. Boudet the younger. The author succeeded in procuring an ætherial fluid, but in small quantities, and of no very determined nature. The acid would have evidently admitted of further additions of alcohol; and, in this way, the product would have been increased. M. Boudet explains the process for preparing the phosphoric acid, and for procuring the æther, at some length.

M. Roard explains, at length, some Experiments made with a view of extracting Iron-Moulds from Cloth. As the acidulous salt of wood-sorrel is too dear for common purposes, he has found cream of tartar, and the mineral acids, succeed. The former must be used in a boiling heat; the others cold. The sulphuric acid, diluted with water, so as to give only a slight acidulous taste, will succeed after some time, without injuring the cloth. We have, however, found the muriatic acid preferable.

In our review of the third volume of the Memoirs of the National Institute, we noticed the Experiments of MM. Guyton and Desormes, respecting a supposed Decomposition of Alkalis, and some of the Earths. We then stated that their evidence was inconclusive, and amounted to little more than presumption. M. Darracq, a pupil and assistant of Vauquelin, has repeated the experiments with great care, and has shown, we think, very clearly, that the conclusions were too hastily drawn. In one instance, they certainly mistook an alkaline phosphat, in a peculiar state, for a calcareous phosphat.

A review of Libe's Elementary Treatise of Philosophy, on a new Plan, consonant to modern Discoveries, we shall only announce. The work has been for some time in our hands; but we did not find in it sufficient novelty to induce us to examine it at length.

M. Boullay has communicated some Observations on the Existence of Phosphorus in Sugar. He was converting the sulphuric into sulphureous acid, by means of sugar, a method somewhat troublesome, but æconomical, when he perceived the smell of phosphorus; and found, upon trial, that it probably proceeded from the

sugar. We have long thought it probable that the phosphoric acid was only one of the other mineral acids in disguise, perhaps the sulphuric or the muriatic; and the same idea recurred, when we found, in a paper just noticed, the small proportion of ether procured from this acid, and the want of any striking peculiar properties of the ether when prepared.

The 120th number—for we shall perhaps find it more convenient, as we approach more nearly in our accounts to the period of publication, to proceed by numbers than by volumes, and, after the present article, shall adopt that plan—commences with a paper, by M. Volta, 'on the Electricity, styled Galvanic,' read in the National Institute, and communicated by the author, with some corrections. His great object is to prove the identity of the Galvanic with the electric fluid, which, from the earliest period of the inquiry, we have insisted on. The torpedo is now known to act by the Galvanic power; but M. Volta seems at a loss to conceive how the fluid and solid plates can be alternated in the animal organ, where the whole is, in a great measure, fluid. But we are now approaching a solution of the most important problem of the animal œconomy, though we can only hint, in this place, that the nerve and muscle probably supply, by their different Galvanic powers, the heterogeneous discs of the pile that we employ in our experiments. When M. Aldini publishes his very curious trials, we shall enlarge more fully on the subject. At present, we shall only remark that a similar suggestion, or conjecture, was often mentioned by Dr. Cullen.

M. Parmentier's memoir 'on Medicinal Tinctures,' is a continuation of his former essays on medicinal wines. He allows the tinctures to be useful forms; but he confines the menstruum to proof spirit, about twenty of Beaumé's aërometer. These tinctures he recommends to be added to the wine. Another pharmaceutical remark of importance is to add only one half of the spirit to the materials, *since*, if the whole be added, the parts most easily soluble will saturate the menstruum, and prevent the others from being taken up. In general, we find these tinctures, added to wine, now supersede, in the French hospitals, the medicinal wines. The whole memoir, though somewhat 'wordy,' merits the attention of English pharmaceutical practitioners and authors, should we ever be so fortunate as to have a pharmaceutical work of accuracy and interest in our own language, of which we understand one is now attempting.

'Examinations of different Species of Pot-ash, in which the simplest Means of determining the Quantity of Alkali, and other Salts which they may contain, are explained, by M. Vauquelin.' Mr. Kirwan has given an admirable essay on the proportion of alkali in different pot-ashes; but, as his object was the process of bleaching, he has omitted noticing the proportion of other neutrals. These are, however, of importance in the manufacture of glass, in that of saltpetre, and some other works. M. Vauquelin has, therefore, been well employed; and his essay is of considerable importance; but it cannot be abridged.

The last article of the number and volume is a Letter from Van Marum to Signor Volta, containing 'the Experiments made on the



Electric Column (the Galvanic Pile) by himself and Professor Pfaff, in Teyler's Laboratory at Harlem.' This letter shows very decisively the similarity between the Galvanic and electric fluids. Five-and-twenty glasses, of five square feet each, were charged 'in a moment,' from the pile, to the same intensity as the pile itself; so rapid is the flow of the Galvanic fluid. The similarity is pursued in a variety of circumstances, and the whole placed beyond a doubt. The rapidity of the motion of this fluid, thus evinced, will readily explain its vast power, and how that it must necessarily elude the sharpest sight in its passage through water. The length of the article forbids, however, our enlarging further on this subject.

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ART. VI.—*Monumens Antiques, inédits, ou nouvellement expliqués, &c.*

*Millin's ancient Monuments, inedited, or newly explained, &c. No. III.\**  
Imported by De Boffe.

IT is with considerable pleasure we resume M. Millin's continuation.—The thirteenth article of these monuments, and first of this number, is a description of a painting on a Greek vase, in the possession of citizen Paroi, representing a Bacchic dance. The principal figure is a winged genius, who leads the measure to the sound of the tambour, while two females accompany him, one in the transports of enthusiasm, and the other in convulsions of ebriety; a third, presenting to the genius a chaplet, induces him to incline his head, and fix his attention on the dancer at his right. The base on which he is placed forms an altar, either, as M. Millin supposes, to show that the music is sacred, or to give the advantage of elevation. This altar is adorned with a branch, resembling those which often occur on *patera*, and thence called *filicated*, from the term *filix*, a fern. The ivy on either side the altar is considered as an intimation that the dance is in honour of Bacchus. The drum, held by the genius in his left hand and played upon by his right, is surrounded by strips of *papyrus*, three in a bunch, in the manner of ribbands fastened to the tambours of the present day. The woman on the left of the genius has her head bound by a narrow bandage, several times crossing her hair. She presents to him the chaplet, according to our author, which she holds in her left hand, whilst her right trails a branch of ivy, which twines with its leaves and clusters. What M. Millin styles a *chaplet*, upon the authority of Visconti—considering it, according to Festus, as an *insula*, or *vitta* of wool, with which victims, sacrifices, and temples, were adorned—we are led to conjecture are fern-seeds; that plant being said to produce them on the day of the summer solstice, with which season the whole design apparently corresponds.

The female on the right of the genius, and towards whom he turns, has a simple bandage only on her head, with a large knot of hair collected behind. Her ear and wrists are ornamented with a pendant and bracelets. Either hand supports the extremities of a

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\* For an account of Nos. I and II, see Crit. Rev. New Arr. vol. 35, p. 551.

girdle, supposed to have a mystic import in the ceremony of initiation. In the explication of sir William Hamilton's collection, M. Italinski interprets it to signify the fillet with which a mother bound her daughter's hair when she led her to the bridal bed; but Boëttiger more properly takes it for a cestus, which was fastened by a particular knot, called the *knot of Hercules*, and which the husband alone had a right to untie. M. Millin, however, though allowing the ingenuity of this conjecture, and that it well agrees with the subject, considers this belt rather as an ornament of the head, and takes it for the *credemnon*, an attribute of Bacchus, not less characteristic than the ivy, and essential in all Dionysiacs.

To establish his conjecture, M. Millin observes that Bacchus wears a diadem as his attribute, he having been its inventor; and cites Diodorus Siculus in proof that the head was bound round, to prevent its aching after excess in drinking; but, admitting this, as well as that the bandage so applied was denominated a *mitre*, and the god, from his wearing it, *μυροφορος*, his figure does not occur on this vase, nor does any thing to prove this ornament his. Whatever applause our author may deserve for his researches concerning the *credemnon*, and his illustrations of the other subjects occurring with it, we must reluctantly withhold our assent from their pertinence on the present occasion.

The third woman is deemed to be completely possessed and full of the Bacchic fury, in which the two others, presenting their offering, are shortly expected to participate, as the qualification to expect those ecstatic visions which the god is supposed to have inspired. Her necklace and ear-rings are esteemed indications of her high birth; and her ample tunic, variegated with flowers, is conjectured to be of that fabric which has long distinguished the southern regions of Asia. M. Millin, however, has omitted to notice her *shoes of palm-leaves*, which, according to Apuleius, were the established attribute of Isis:—*Pedes ambrosios tegebant soleæ palmæ victricis foliis intextæ*.

The ivy over the head of the last described figure leads M. Millin into an inquiry concerning the different species of this plant, and whence it became appropriate to Bacchus; but, for the curious particulars collected concerning it, we must refer our readers to the work itself, and for his remarks upon the subordinate figures.

Article the fourteenth offers an explanation of the following inscription found at Bourbon-Lancy:

C · IVLIVS · EPOREDIRICIS · F · AACNVS  
 PRO · L · IVLIO · CALENO · FILIO  
 BORM ON IEE D A M O N A E  
 VOT · SOI

which M. Millin, from a comparison with other inscriptions, interprets:—*This vow hath been given or offered to Borro and to Damona, by C. Julius Magnus, son of Eporedirix, FOR L. Calenus, his son; leaving, however, a doubt whether the FOR is to be taken instead, or on account, of in reference to the restoration of his health, or his return.*

The *Eporedirix* here mentioned is supposed to have been the commander of noble birth, among the *Ædui*, who, in the attempt to deliver Vercingetorix, fell under Cæsar. His son, thence becoming a client of the conqueror, is further conjectured to have taken



from him, according to custom, his two first names. M. Millin imagines that this *Caius Julius* might have carried his son Calenus, in the reign of Augustus, to Bourbon-Lancy, for the benefit of its waters; and, on his recovery by the use of them, to have addressed, in his behalf, this votive inscription to the goddesses presiding over them.

The next article contains a description of a Greek vase, representing the dance of a satyr and two mænades. This vase is the property of the same collector. The artist has represented on it a real *pas de trois*; for the satyr appears to pass continually from the one to the other of these mænades, figuring alternately with both.

In the Dionysiacs, or feasts sacred to Bacchus, these lively dances made a part, and were executed to the sound of the flute, syrinx, tambour, cymbal, and other loud-sounding instruments, in opposition to the softer harmony of the lyre, accompanied by vocal accents, corresponding with the march of the jolly conqueror of India.

These dances preceded the first efforts of the dramatic art; and, in representing the chief personages in the history of Ceres or Bacchus, the frantic agitations, which had no immediate purport, became subject, in some measure, to rules, and excite a respective interest.

The dance, thus explained, is considered as of a sacred character; and, though much learning is exhibited by M. Millin in illustrating it, the particulars of the description are scarcely to be understood without being accompanied with the plate. We must therefore refer to the work.

The subject of the next article, from the cabinet of antiques in the national library, is of the same size with the engraving on plate the nineteenth, and certainly of considerable value, not only for the beauty of the gem itself, but for the figures in cameo represented upon it. The unquestionable likeness of *Septimius Severus* evinces the three other persons to be *Julia Domna* his wife, with their two sons *Caracalla* and *Geta*.

The remarks of M. Millin, on the radiated crown of this emperor—both accurate and judicious—will serve to throw great light on the application of this ornament; and those on the rest of the dress are equally appropriate.

The two remaining articles are, a cinerary urn of marble, and a vase of singular beauty, both in the cabinet of M. Van Hoorn. The latter, which is given for the elegance of its form, is of the marble of Carrara, and seems to have been designed rather for ornament than a funeral purpose. The former, however, of the same marble, evidently contained the ashes of some eminent personage.

The same minuteness of research into the objects of antiquity, relative to the several ornaments upon, or connected with, the figures it presents to us, is conspicuous in this disquisition; and we should, with singular pleasure, have enlarged upon them, but that the limits of our Appendix forbid.

We congratulate M. Millin on the increasing interest of his work, the fourth number of which is soon to appear, and will contain a description of the magnificent patera in gold, of the French cabinet, with other curious remains of antiquity.

ART. VII.—*Poesías del Conde de Noroña. Dos Tomos. Madrid. Poems of Count de Noronia. 2 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Imported by Gameau and Co.*

WHEN Spain was the most powerful kingdom in Europe, it was also the country where literature was most encouraged, and, therefore, most flourishing. Its power and literature declined together. The present reign, however, has been more favorable to arts than arms. In the contest between two great nations, neither of whom have used their strength with justice or moderation, Spain has alternately been the victim of both. The historian will rather commiserate her weakness than blame her errors; but he will record the encouragement of manufactures, of science, and literature, in honorable testimony to the merits of the reigning family.

There are three æras in the history of Spanish poetry. The first is from the formation of the Castilian language to the introduction of Italian metres by Boscan. Juan de Mena was the most famous of this vernacular school, and Christobal de Castillejo the last and ablest of its defenders. The new school was founded by men who would not, perhaps, have succeeded by their genius, if rank and fashion had not assisted them. The Spaniards themselves call Boscan a feeble writer. Garcilaso is not a powerful one; and Mendoza's fame rests upon his novel and his history, not his poems. The Italian who persuaded Boscan to the attempt was Navagero, or, as he is better known by his Latin name, Nauigerius, then ambassador from Venice. The fashion soon became general; and the best writers composed sonnets and *canciones*, wrote their epistles and satires in *terza*, and their epics in *ottava rima*. The third period is the decline and fall of Spanish literature. Gongora, a poet of considerable genius, introduced a vicious style. He corrupted the language by latinising it, and bloating his sentences with sesquipedalian words. Nothing was to be said simply. The most trivial meaning was to be expressed by the most remote allusion, and the most laborious accumulation of stately phrases. This folly was successful. A few pedants studied his riddles—lectured upon them—published long commentaries—and partook of his fame. The multitude acquiesced, because they admire, as they believe, by faith. So general was the infection, and so long did it continue, that Spanish literature was neglected and despised abroad. A purer taste has been at length established by able and severe critics. The better authors have been re-printed; their faults have been insisted on, as well as their merits; and the present reign has produced writers, formed upon these models, who will hold a distinguished place among the poets of Spain.

The noble author of the volumes now before us, has attempted all the minor species of poetry. He is a soldier; but the muse has said to him

‘ Quien te ha dicho que el pecho,  
En donde yo resido,  
Es debil, sin aliento?  
Diganlo por mi Ercilla,  
Mendoza, Rebolledo,  
Garcilaso, y Cadalso,



**Honor de los modernos.**

Los unos sus laureles  
Con mirto entrelegieron;  
Y los otros con sangre  
Sellaron sus trofeos.  
Las almas apagadas,  
Los cuerpos como yelo  
No sirven para Marte,  
No son gratos à Venu,  
Ni en el Parnaso encuentran  
El mas humilde asiento;  
Pues el Dios que alli manda  
Es todo luz, y fuego.  
Asi toma la pluma  
Continúa escribiendo;  
Que la trompa, y la lira  
Saben sonar de acuerdo.' Vol. i. p. 37.

For tell me who has told thee  
The bosom that I dwell in  
Is weak and void of courage?  
Let answer that Ercilla,  
Mendoza, Rebolleda,  
Garcilaso, and Cadalso,  
The honour of the moderns!  
They interwin'd the myrtle  
Amid their laurel garlands;  
Or seal'd with blood their trophies,  
Nor Mars approves, nor Venus,  
Cold souls and icy bodies;  
Nor will they on Parnassus  
The lowest seat obtain.  
All light and fire is Phæbus,  
The god who governs there;  
Take thou thy pen and write, then;  
For well the lyre and trumpet  
May harmonise their sounds.

The first poems are the Anacreontics: they are more frequently upon love than wine. A general condemnation may be passed upon amatory poems. Cupid was very well in his day, on a cameo, or a bas-relief; but his bastard descendents are insufferable, who figure in a song or a sonnet, on an upholsterer's shop-card, or a hair-dresser's shop-sign at a watering place. Nobody, says Castillejo, can be compared to Love, except the great Turk: one is tempted to wish that the Spanish writers had regarded both with the same enmity, and excommunicated the little heathen from Christian poetry.

The count's Anacreontics are very inferior to those of his countryman Villegas—to the *delicias*, which he tells us were written at fourteen, and corrected at twenty.

' A los catorce escritas  
A los veinte limadas.'

The poet dreams that he is kissing Lisis, and he finds himself hugging the bed. He writes an ode, like Abel Shufflebottom, to a white pocket-handkerchief, because her fingers have touched it, and she has wiped her eyes in it when she wept, and her forehead when she was warm, and her mouth when it distilled nectar. 'Run my tears,' he says, 'into the river Cardoner, and go with him into the sea; and do not be terrified at the noise of the ocean, nor at the mountains of foam, nor at the wrecks you will meet; but go on till you come to Gades, and stop in that haven till the sun draws you into a cloud, and Boreas blows you to Guadalete; then descend in a shower upon my lady's face, and kiss her lips.' Lord Brooke begins a sonnet with a line which would be an admirable motto for all such poems.

' I sigh, I sorrow, I do play the fool.'

' The Duration of Lovers' vows' is a badly-imitated thought, Cloe writes upon a rose-leaf a promise, that she will love none but Dametas; but Zephyr, who is sporting near,

' De sus dedos süaves  
Con un ligero soplo  
La arrebatada en un punto  
La hoja, el amor, y el voto.' Vol. i. p. 19.

All careless, passing by,  
From her fair fingers now  
Blew, with a gentle sigh,  
The leaf, the love, the vow.

How inferior is this to the lines of George of Montemayor!

' Sobre el arena sentada  
De aquel rio la vi yo,  
Do con el-dedo escrivio,  
Antes muerta que mudada.  
Mira el Amor lo que ordena,  
Que os viene hazer creer  
Casas dichas por muger  
E escriptas en el arena.'

One evening, on the river's pleasant strand,  
The maid too well beloved sat with me,  
And, with her finger, traced upon the sand,  
"Death for Diana, not inconstancy."  
And Love beheld us from his secret stand,  
And marked his triumph, laughing to behold me,  
To see me trust a writing traced in sand,  
To see me credit what a woman told me.

The count's Anacreontics must not, however, be mentioned with unqualified censure: they have often that felicity of expression which is all that such poems pretend to, and which is generally untranslatable. This little piece is a fair specimen.



' De Rafäéla.

' He visto unos ojuelos  
Con unas niñas negras,  
Donde el fuego de Venus  
Con gracia centellëa;  
He visto en unos labios,  
Que á las rosas afrentan,  
Bullir del amor dulce  
Los chistes, y agudezas;  
He visto que Cupido  
Jugaba entre unas hebras  
Largas, y finas, donde  
El amante se enreda,  
Ho visto una cintura,  
Que parece se quiebra,  
Y con todo un completo  
De hermosura sustenta;  
He visto un pie pequeño,  
Cuyas graciosas huellas  
Dan ganas de seguirlas  
Con la mayor presteza;  
He visto que una ropa  
Muy bien prendida, y puesta  
Ocultaba á mis ojos  
Aun mayores bellezas;  
He visto un ayre noble;  
He viso una alma tierna;  
Y en sola una palabra  
He visto á Rafäéla.' Vol. i. p. 26.

It would not be doing justice to this piece to attempt a metrical translation. The *curiosa felicitas* cannot be transfused from one language to another. Choice of expression and sweetness of metre are its merits. These cannot be imitated in English; for a close version, from the nature of our language, would be shorter than the original, and it would be necessary to eke out our monosyllables, by dilating the sense, already sufficiently feeble. In plain prose, this is its meaning:

' I have seen two eyes with black pupils, where the fire of Venus gracefully sparkles: I have seen the "quips, and quirks, and wanton wiles" of Love, sporting upon lips that shame the rose: I have seen Cupid playing among long fine tresses, wherein the lover is entangled: I have seen a girdle that seemed as if it would burst, and yet sustained the fullness of beauty: I have seen a little foot, whose mincing steps tempted a quicker pursuit: I have seen that a robe, well devised and worn, hid from my eyes still greater beauties: I have seen a noble air: I have seen a tender soul: and, in one word, I have seen Rafäéla.'

The *siltas* follow. These also are upon the same subjects, Nerina, and Phyllis, and Silvia, and Venus, and little Cupid. La Casa de

Nerina is a fine poem, full of passion. One phrase in it appears somewhat ludicrous to an English reader.

'Alli estaba su lecho delicioso,  
Su lecho afortunado,  
Que en su nevada holanda la acogia.' Vol. i. p. 69.

There was her delicious bed:  
Happy bed, that clasp'd the maid,  
In its snowy holland laid!

The *canciones* are of the same class. That upon Lesbia's anger is truly original. 'Neither the fever,' he says, 'which raged in all his bones, nor the attack of a French army, nor an avalanche among the Pyrenees, was so terrible to him as the displeasure of his mistress: not even the fire which consumed our ships before Gibraltar, nor the dreadful uproar, nor the loud cries, nor the smoke of the burnt batteries, nor a thousand lives destroyed in my sight, caused me so much pain as to see my lady full of anger!' Among the *canciones* is a free translation of Alexander's Feast.

In his odes, the count attempts higher subjects, and succeeds better. That upon the corruption of the age is a manly poem, becoming a Spanish noble who remembers what his country has been, and feels what it is.

'Y vosotros, Pelayos,  
Sanchos, Alfonsos, Dávilas, Guzmanes,  
Que como ardientes rayos,  
Y sabios capitanes,  
Desplegando los rojos tafetanes,  
Blandisteis la cuchilla  
En los montes de Asturias escabrosos,  
Llanuras de Castilla,  
Y en donde los medrosos  
Godos huyeron, no, no esteis gozosos:  
Vuestros Hijos no imitan  
Vuestra ilustre virtud, vuestras acciones;  
Sus fuerzas no ejercitan  
Con pesados barrones;  
Ni al sol revuelven áridos terrones;  
Ni al caballo fogoso  
Hacen que tasque de oprimido el freno;  
Y suba presuroso  
El áspero terreno,  
De polvo, de sudor, de sangre lleno;  
No los juegos marciales,  
En que el brio se muestra, y la destreza,  
Usan con sus iguales,  
Sino infame torpeza,  
En que gime de horror Naturaleza.  
Canciones habaneras,  
Bayles, en que los miembros, agitados  
Con Mudanzas ligeras,



Dexan de ardor tocados  
 Los ánimos mas fríos, y apagados,  
 La doncellita aprende  
 Desde su tierna edad, y se exercita;  
 La llama, que así enciende,  
 Sus desēos irrita,  
 Y al fin la venda del rubor se quita.  
 En un ruinoso juego  
 El varon, ó en la crápula sumido,  
 Permite con sosiego  
 Que el virginal oído  
 Sēa con desenfreno corrompido:  
 Y luego muy gozoso  
 En su lecho la admite, á fin que osada  
 Se burle de su esposo,  
 Y quede destrozada  
 Del tálamo nupcial la fé sagrada.  
 Que esperanza nos resta  
 Con progenie tan torpe, tan viciosa,  
 Si acaso viene presta,  
 Y destruírnos osa  
 Otra nacion robusta, y belicosa?' Vol. i. p. 181.

Pelayos! Sanchos! names ador'd,  
 Guzmans, Alfonsos, Davilas of old!  
 In council wise, in action bold,  
 The thunderbolts of fight;  
 Who to the mountain gales  
 Unfurl'd your banners bright,  
 And shook on wild Asturian heights the sword,  
 And on Castilian vales,  
 And wheresoe'er the broken Goths in flight  
 Sought refuge from the mis-believing horde.  
 Heroic chiefs of ancient story!  
 Yea, ev'n in heav'n ye sorrow to behold  
 Your native land's disgrace,  
 Your sons a feeble and degen'rate race;  
 They follow not the deeds of old,  
 They tread not in your path of glory,  
 Nor hurl the bar in sportive might,  
 Nor urge the panting steed  
 Onward and onward up the craggy height,  
 His reins all foamy white,  
 His limbs all cover'd o'er  
 With dust, with sweat, with gore;  
 They meet not in the martial game,  
 Th' illustrious school of fame,  
 To cope with equals in the friendly fight,  
 But plunge in sloth and infamous delight,  
 Till sick'ning Nature, at the sight,  
 Recoils and groans with shame.

To trill the loose voluptuous measure,  
 Adown the dance to swim,  
 Where ev'ry wanton limb,  
 With quiv'ring motion of lascivious pleasure  
 Is practis'd to entice  
 The frozen heart, and kindle languid vice.  
 Train'd up from childhood to this pander art,  
 Thus does the virgin fan the growing flame,  
 Till, long corrupt of heart,  
 She loose the belt of modesty and shame.  
 The man, meantime, shaking the ruinous dice,  
 Or, draining deep the brutalising bowl,  
 Permits the virgin's ear,  
 Unguarded, unrestrain'd, to hear  
 The tales that taint the soul.  
 This he beholds with careless eyes,  
 Content a wife like this to wed!  
 A wife taught early to despise  
 The sacred marriage-bed!  
 What hope have we, so fall'n, so low,  
 So sunk in sloth and shameful joy,  
 If threaten'd by a foe  
 Inured to war and mighty to destroy?

A mock heroic concludes the first volume, called *La Quicayda*, from Quica the heroine. Quica, a beauty of Xeres, sees that her rival, Tirsa, wins the general admiration by appearing with roses in winter. She sends three of her lovers to steal the rose-bush by night. They succeed in the attempt. Tirsa, however, recovers it, and appears at a *tertulia*, when Quica is enjoying her triumph, with another rose. A battle ensues, like that in the *Rape of the Lock*, and the rose is torn to pieces, after which the rivals are reconciled. This story is protracted through eight cantos, by introducing Mischiefs, and Care, and Presumption, and Revenge. The most original passage is the following:

' El venenoso Chisme, que yacía  
 En los toscos umbrales  
 De una bien inmediata Escribanía,  
 Despertó á risas tales;  
 Y escuchó á su sabor quanto decía  
 La hueste de las rosas destructora;  
 Con planta voladora  
 Encamínase en busca del Desvelo.  
 Halla un palacio, que parece al Cielo  
 Escalar con su mole suntuosa;  
 Entre gruesas columnas granadinas,  
 De terso jaspe, y en color sanguinas,  
 Se revuelve la puerta poderosa;  
 Cubierta, y tachonada  
 De aromático cedro, y bronce duro;  
 Esta, qual fuerte muro,



Impidiendo la entrada  
 A toda alma viviente,  
 Un augusto silencio allí conserva.  
 El Chisme, que lo observa,  
 Métese prestamente  
 Por los resquicios breves de sus juntas ;  
 Que no hay espadas con agudas puntas,  
 Ni canon, ni muralla, ni ancho foso,  
 Que detengan al Chisme venenoso.  
 Penetra los salones interiores,  
 Donde admira riquezas, y primores ;  
 Griegas estatuas ; láminas, pinturas  
 De los mas celebrados profesores ;  
 Flamencas colgaduras ;  
 Alfombras turcas ; cómodos asientos,  
 Con plumas mexicanas rellenos ;  
 Espejos en la Granja trabajados ;  
 Y otros muchos portentos ;  
 Sigue con pasos lentos  
 Hasta hallar una alcoba retirada,  
 Del ayre, el Sol, y el ruido resguardada ;  
 En medio se levanta un rico lecho,  
 Sin duda de algun hombre de provecho,  
 Mullido, terso, holgado,  
 De pomposas cortinas rodado.  
 Aquí, aquí, dice el Chisme, está el Desvelo.  
 Vá á pisar el umbral, y dá en el suelo.  
 Quien se interpone aquí ? Quien atrevido  
 Me impide el paso ? Exclama enfurecido.  
 La Indolencia, la puerta atravesando,  
 Yacia allí roncando ;  
 Y con el fatal tropiezo  
 Sacude el sueño blando  
 Con un perezosisimo bostezo ;  
 Entreabriendo sus ojos adormidos,  
 Al Chisme presta oídos ;  
 E, informada del fin de su venida,  
 Le dice así con voz desfallecida :  
 Tambien tú, alucinado  
 Por las acaloradas descripciones  
 De los pöetas pobres, has juzgado  
 Que en soberbios salones,  
 Entre el rico arteson, y el estucado  
 Habitan el Desvelo, y el Cuidado ?  
 Que error ! Que desatino !  
 Solo yo reyno aquí. Mi dulce tronó  
 Está aquí de continuo.  
 Aquí vivo, aquí mando, aquí doy tono ;  
 Y nada se hace aquí sin mi anuencia.  
 Esta es la casa en fin de la Indolencia.' Vol. i. p. 222.

But Mischief, who lay nigh,  
 Within the threshold of a lawyer's door,  
 APP. Vol. 36. 2 P

Awaken'd at the uproar,  
 He lies and listens there,  
 While the loud triumph of their joy discloses  
 The rape of Tirsa's roses,  
 Then forth he flies in search of Care.

He found a palace towering high,  
 As with its summit it would scale the sky.  
 'Twixt jasper columns there of blood-hue bright,  
 Studded with brass revolved the ponderous door,  
 With aromatic cedar covered o'er,—  
 That door, that, guarding silence thro' the night,  
 From ingress, like a massy wall,  
 Excluded living wight.

But Mischief, whose keen eye inspected all,  
 Thro' the close cranny found a way for flight;  
 For neither two-edged sword, nor stone redoubt,  
 Nor pointed cannon, can keep Mischief out.  
 There in the inner halls might he behold

Pictures and Grecian statues ranged around,  
 The works of masters old;

Turkey's rich carpets on the un-echoing ground,  
 And sofas swelling soft with down  
 From Mexico's far region brought,  
 And mirrors in the royal fabric wrought.

But Mischief, passing on with gentle tread,  
 Comes to a quiet chamber, fenced around  
 From air and sun and sound,  
 Where stood a sumptuous bed,  
 High-piled and soft, and closely curtain'd round.  
 ' Here ! here ! quoth Mischief, is the abode of Care.'

He said, and would have passed the door,  
 But stumbled there, and fell upon the floor.

' What checks me ? who is he, will dare  
 Impede my entrance ?' thus in wrath he cries.  
 Thereat awakening, from that stately bed,  
 Did Indolence uplift his heavy head.  
 With a long yawn, he half essay'd to rise,  
 And half unclos'd his eyes,  
 And listen'd, hearing half, to Mischief's tale.  
 ' And hast thou, too,' quoth he, ' by poets poor  
 And their vain fancies thus besool'd, been led  
 Here amid proud saloons, and palace halls,  
 And vaulted roofs, and pictur'd walls,  
 To seek for Care ? Care sojourns far from hence—  
 Oh, fool ! to seek him here, where I alone  
 Reign upon my perpetual throne.  
 This is the home of Indolence !'

Indolence proceeds in a speech too long to be in character ; but  
 it concludes in the same spirit.

\* Busca, busca al Desvelo  
En casa de un mortal meditabundo,  
Que con ardiente zelo  
Trabaje en hacer bien á todo el mundo;  
Cuyo color caído, y macilento  
Te haga ver al momento  
Que solo le consuela  
La dicha de los otros; y así pasa  
El dia con afan, la noche en vela.' Vol. i. p. 226.

Go to the thoughtful man, and there  
Seek thou for Care!  
With him whose heart for all mankind can feel—  
With him whose generous zeal  
Toils for the public weal—  
With him who seeks the good of all mankind.  
His meagre form, his pallid cheek,  
At once may make it known,  
How much he toils for others' good,  
How little for his own.

This passage is of no common merit. There is a want of probability in the story, though perhaps it may have been built, like the Rape of the Lock, upon some trifling circumstance which actually occurred. The scene is laid at Xeres; and the count, in one of his sonnets, expresses regret at leaving that city. The Gatomaquia of Búrguillos (not Lope de Vega) has more wit and playfulness, but is not so well constructed. Both poems want that empty importance of subject which gives so much character to the Lutrin. A mock-heroic, which possesses this merit in a high degree, has obtained great reputation in Portugal, though it is confined to manuscript—The Hisopaída of the Dezembargador Antonio Dihiz. Parody is perhaps the chief excellence of Boileau's poem; in this the Quicayda is deficient.

The second volume begins with the *letrillas*. These have the fault of his Anacreontics. Dorimene is dead, and I will die also. This is the burden of one. On such a subject, a thousand poets have written, and written badly. The true and exquisite feeling of Mr. Gifford's poem is not perhaps to be paralleled—

'I wish I was where Anna lies;  
For I am sick of lingering here!'

When Dorimene died, the poet's soul was like the world when the sun leaves it; neither the river nor the meadows delight him; he neither sings, nor plays upon his flute; nor makes garlands for his head; nor sleeps under the laurel; nor sleeps at all; nor even lives. This is sufficiently common-place; and, if the count be condemned for it, it must be, not for coining base money, but for uttering it. But when he tells us that the sun would not shine, that the mountain shook, that the rivers ran back, that the roses are withered by his sighs, and the fountains overflow with his tears, we must allow him all the merit of original nonsense. The eclogue



and pastoral poems are after the manner of all pastorals, to which we would recommend Ambrose Phillips' line as a standing text—

' Ah! silly I, more silly than my sheep!'

One of the sonnets must be noticed. The poet tells Lesbia that nothing can resist her eyes. The new Hannibal, Bonaparte, would not have gained such laurels if *she* had assisted the Italians—' Look at Italy!' he says: ' frighten the French, and save the Capitol.'

A long poem in *asonantes*, called *La Noche Triste*, is the first of the elegies. The count's language of love is always hyperbolic.

' Oh vosotros mortales, tan felices  
Que no sabeis de amor, y que su horrendo  
Contagio no ha llegado todavia  
*A corroer activo vuestros huesos,*' &c. Vol. ii. p. 178.

Oh, happy ye, who know not love, now how  
*His quick contagion spreads and penetrates,*  
*Corroding with its poison all your bones!*

And, again, in the same poem he speaks of

' ————— *La fiebre*  
*Atroz que, apoderada de mis huesos,*  
*En la misma medula ha penetrado.'* Vol. ii. p. 189.

————— *The fever horrible*  
*That rages in my bones, yea penetrates*  
*The very marrow!*

The count should have recollected Castillejo's stanza,

' *Sobra de bien y pan tierno*  
*Hace que las amadores*  
*Comparen el mal de amores*  
*A las penas del infierno.*  
*Tu Cupido*  
*Estas muy favorecido*  
*Pensando que aquello es,*  
*Mas adonde hay mal frances*  
*El tuyo queda en olvido.'*

'Tis when lovers are too well fed,  
'Tis too many good things, and soft bread,  
That makes them tell  
How the pain of love,  
All evils above,

Is as bad as the tortures of hell.  
Little Cupid, thy power they greatly o'erhance,  
In saying that this can be;—  
But there is an evil which comes from France;  
And they who have that, think nothing of thee.

A poem upon Death concludes the work. The count calls it a philosophical poem. It is written in *asonantes*; but in lines of the full heroic length. A form appears to him in his sleep,

‘ De altura colosal, ancha de espaldas,  
Piel arrugada, huesos descarnados,  
De tetra amarilléz la faz cubierta,  
Sin orden los cabellos, dientes ralos,  
Barba erizada, y encovados ojos,  
Llamas, y sangre en derredor lanzando.’ Vol. ii. p. 230.

— Broad shoulder’d, of colossal height,  
His skin all wrinkled up, his bones unflesh’d,  
His face of a black yellowness, his hair  
Unkempt, teeth widely-sunder’d, bristled beard,  
And eyes deep-cavern’d, scattering fire and blood.

Death seizes him, and hurries him through the air; yet, terrified as the poet well may be, he remarks the dwindled size of the Alps and Pyrenees, and takes a bird’s-eye view of the sea. They reach a ruined building, and go through an arched way into a huge cavern, where Achilles, and Alexander, and Aristides, and Vespasian, and Alonso the Chaste,

Cum multis aliis, quos nunc perscribere longum est,

are all interred. There Death makes a long speech upon the miseries of life. The rich and the wise and the powerful, he says, are all unhappy—he quotes Solomon—tells the story of Damocles like a learned Theban—proves the absurdity of suicide; being, it seems, unwilling that any man should take the business out of his hands—confutes the materialists—and convinces the count that men ought not to be so much afraid of him as they are. These topics are literally, *sermoni propria*, more proper for a sermon! The count is an English scholar: we wish he had read Blair’s ‘Grave:’ Young is a favourite every-where on the continent; and Blair has at least equal merit. We have another poem of uncommon genius upon this subject—Emily’s Death.

Such are the poems of the Conde de Noronia: to have devoted any portion of his time to literature, is no little merit in a nobleman and a soldier. We have given the worst as well as the best specimens of his talents; and, after weighing him in the balance, may justly say that he has not been found wanting.

ART. VIII.—LETTRE sur l'Inscription Egyptienne de ROSETTE; adressée au Citoyen SILVESTRE DE SACY, Professeur de Langue Arabe à l'Ecole spéciale des Langues Orientales vivantes, &c. Par J. D. AKERBLAD, ancien Secrétaire des Commandemens de S. M. le Roi de Suède; de la Société Royale de Sciences de Göttingue, &c. 8vo. Paris. 1802.

*Letter on the Egyptian Inscription of Rosetta; addressed to Citizen Silvester de Sacy, Professor of Arabic in the School for living Oriental Languages. By J. D. Akerblad. Imported by De Boffe.*

THE scarcity of monuments with alphabetic inscriptions have hitherto opposed an insurmountable obstacle to the efforts of the learned, and almost precluded the hope of discovering the ancient alphabet of Egypt. The *inscription of Rosetta* has, however, rekindled their zeal; and of this, the letter before us is a very commendable proof; the express object of it being to assign each respective letter to its proper place and import.

M. Akerblad commences with the same names M. de Sacy had chosen; though the mode of distributing the letters of them essentially differs, notwithstanding they agree in the names themselves. The first of the three is *Ptolomy*, the characters of which, united in M. Akerblad's manner, form the name ΠΤΛΟΛΛΕΟΣ, and differs but little from Πτολεμαῖος, or Πτολομαῖος; for the name was written both ways. In respect to names of Grecian origin, the Copts sometimes retain their terminations, and sometimes retrench them: thus, they write both ΞΑΚΑΡΙΟΣ and ΞΑΚΑΡΙ, ΑΠΤΩΠΙΟΣ and ΑΠΤΩΠΙ, ΠΤΟΛΟΛΛΕΟΣ, and ΠΤΟΛΟΛΛΕ.

It is in the last manner that the name of Ptolomy is written in the history of the martyr St. Apater; and while the two first letters are without a vowel, which represent the syllable *Pto*, as is usual in the Coptic, and especially in the dialect of Upper Egypt, it is obvious to add, that the ΑΙ and Ε being always confounded, no difficulty can thence arise to any one not ignorant of Coptic.

Concerning the name *Arsinoë*, M. Akerblad observes, that it, like that of *Ptolomy*, begins with an M, which is here indicative of the genitive case, and is terminated like it, with ΑΙ or Ε; which, being of the same import, perfectly identify *Arsinoë* written by the Copts, to whom it was familiar, from their having a city so called, synonymous with *Feyyoun*—ΑΡCΕΠΩΕ. Thus, the authorities for the other letters admitted, the name in question is distinctly made out.

Stating his difficulties in acceding to M. de Sacy's mode of eliciting the name of *Alexander*, M. Akerblad proceeds to his own; and as it occurs like *Arsinoë* in construction, he finds it to be expressed with the prefix, as in Coptic ΞΑΛΕΞΑΠΤΡΟΣ.

Having next developed the name *Berenice*, which he considers as corresponding to ΒΡΗΚΕΕ or ΒΡΗΚΕ, though M. Aker-



blad does not recollect to have found it so expressed in Coptic books—he endeavours to adjust the variation, by supposing that the S, which is redundant in the name, might have been added by the Egyptian translator into Greek, who, seeing it written as a genitive, BEPENIKHΣ, in the decree, took the *sigma* for a radical letter. This conjecture, which is certainly ingenious, implies that the decree was originally conceived in Greek, and afterwards turned into Egyptian: an hypothesis which many arguments might be brought to support.

Several other Greek names occurring in the third line of the inscription, M. Akerblad proceeds to analyse them. Beginning with that of the high-priest destined to the worship of Alexander and the Ptolomies—ΕΦ'ΙΕΡΕΩΕ ΑΕΤΟΥ ΤΟΥ ΔΕ ΤΟΥ \* ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΟΥ ΚΑΙ ΘΕΩΝ ΣΩΤΗΡΩΝ, &c. he considers the Egyptian interpreter to have rendered ΟΥΚΗΒ ΑΛΕΞΑΝΤΡΟΣ...ΔΕΤΟΣ, being priest of Alexander, Aëtos, &c. This construction, he admits, appears forced in the Coptic; but he justifies it, from a supposed solicitude to avoid placing the priest's name before that of the sovereigns of Egypt. Having recourse to the letters, whose signification he had already ascertained, and to the analogy corresponding with the names of *Ptolomy* and *Arsinoë*, he thence deduces ΔΕΤΟΣ

ΠΥΡΗΡΙ ΑΔΕΤΟΣ, Aëtos son of Aëtos; the term signifying son being introduced as necessary to the idiom of the Coptic, though suppressed by that of the Greek. The sagacity of M. Akerblad in this instance is strikingly conspicuous; and his finding the repetition of Aëtos is a remarkable proof of his success, inasmuch as it co-incides with the reading of the stone before noticed, of Α for Δ, making του Αετου for του Δε του, to which M. Akerblad was utterly a stranger. Of Aëtos, he observes, if he were of Egyptian origin, his name, among his countrymen, was probably ΠΑΔΩΩ, which in Egyptian, as Aëtos in Greek, signified an EAGLE; adding, that this Egyptian name, become celebrated in the annals of Christian Egypt by St. Pachom, found its way into the Greek language, as did that of Aëtos into the Egyptian.

Advancing, with like sagacity, to the three priestesses—PYRRHA daughter of Phileus, AREIA daughter of Diogenes, and IRENE daughter of Ptolomy—M. Akerblad passes on to the word συνταξις, at the end of the fourteenth line of the Greek inscription, and expresses his surprise to find it retained at the close of the eighth in the Egyptian. Having verified this assertion by analysis, and remarked other instances, from the recurrence of αιωνοβιος, επιφανης, ευχαριστος, ευεργετης, &c. that the decree was first written in Greek, the letters which remain to complete the alphabet are sought in such terms, as from their connexion are most easy to be explained. To all these researches, which cannot fail to interest and gratify the curious, M. Akerblad adds, of the alphabet so found, that, though it resemble no other known to

\* M. DE SACY's copy of the Greek inscription sent to him from Egypt, which M. Akerblad used, reads erroneously Δ for Α; whence ΤΟΥ ΔΕ ΤΟΥ for ΤΟΥ ΑΕΤΟΥ, the reading on the stone.

him, a similitude is, nevertheless, perceptible between particular letters of it and of the Phœnician, Syriac, and even the Zend. In arranging his alphabet, M. Akerblad follows the order of the Coptic, as scarcely any thing is certain respecting the Egyptian; and as to the seven vowels (see *Demetrius Περὶ Ἑλληνισμῶν*, § 71.) of the alphabet, properly Egyptian, M. Akerblad suspects they may be found in that of the Ethiopians.

M. ZOEGA having collected in his great work, *De Origine et Usu Obeliscorum*, such notices as have been transmitted by the ancients relative to the alphabetic writing of Egypt; and M. de Sacy having discussed, in a very satisfactory manner, the principal passages from ancient writers, in his *Letter to the Minister* CHAPTAL \*, M. Akerblad subjoins only a few observations. After expressing a concurrence with M. de Sacy, who had considered the δημοτικὰ γράμματα of Herodotus as applying to the inscription in question, and corresponding with the συχῶτα γράμματα used upon it, he offers an essentially different explanation of the famous passage in Clemens (Strom. v. 4.), which has given rise to such various opinions. M. Akerblad thinks it highly probable that the hieratic writing there mentioned was that of this very inscription; Clemens having expressly asserted it to have been that used by the SACRED SCRIBES, a class which he recognises for a part of the hierarchy of Egypt, from whom the decree came. What, it is asked, could be more natural, than that they should have expressed it in the character which the ancients had assigned them, and in which a part at least of their sacred books were written? In another passage of the same writer, among the hieratic books, one is mentioned which contained hymns in praise of the gods. These hymns must necessarily have been written in alphabetic characters, since hieroglyphics could but very imperfectly express the language of poetry, much less discriminate the gradations of expression essential to it. As to the epistolary writing mentioned by Clemens, it could have been no other than a cursive kind, derived, with some variation, from the hieratic or book writing, and such as is common in every country. If, now, this interpretation of Clemens be admitted, who, with Porphyry, is the only one that has mentioned the triple writing of the Egyptians, these authors are perfectly reconciled with Herodotus and Diodorus, by whom two species of writing only are admitted—the hieroglyphic, and the common or alphabetic; and the latter, called by Clemens hieratic, was so styled from its use by the sacred scribes; while the cursive, derived from it, was named epistolographic writing. From the learned and indefatigable Millin, a most valuable specimen of this last kind may be shortly looked for, which will confirm, without doubt, the opinion here given.

M. Akerblad, in concluding this singular research, points out, by a luminous example, what aid may be expected from the Egyptian inscription, in filling up the chasms in the Greek. The defects in M. Akerblad's copy have created an embarrassment in the

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. vol. 35, p. 515.





*M. AKERBLAD'S Alphabet of the ANCIENT EGYPTIAN.*  
deduced from the STONE OF ROSETTA.

a u u a long

3 4

Г..... К..... ( К ).

2. (T)

e i r l a short

2

$$H_{\dots\dots\dots} III_{\dots\dots\dots} ) II_{\dots\dots\dots} /// (\Delta, E1, I)$$
 $\theta \dots \angle$ 

S.....P.....VI.....VII.

K 7C 7C 1C

2 y y

u j u o

$\pi$ ..... $\iota$ ..... $\iota$ ..... $\varsigma$ ..... $\varsigma$  middle

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i^2} \approx 1.644934 \dots (K.C.)$$

O U G C ~

π 2 2 1 final

p. 111

C.....C.....91.....91.....K4 final

T L L L

 $\tau_{\dots} \iota_{\dots} \iota_{\dots}$ 

$\Phi$  3 2 4 4 middle

x.....✓

$$\Psi_{\dots\dots\dots} 2 \downarrow \dots\dots\dots (\underline{y} \pi)$$

ω... (or) ..... 1 ..... 1 ..... 1 .....

3 + + 1 w

q.....y.....y

5 2 2 2

£

2. 3. 4.






† 5

 $\bar{\Delta} \dots I \dots ?$ 

В ..... И ..... У

F III p

forty-sixth line, where a date is wanted, which, perhaps, is nowhere else to be found; he does not however despair, when this obstacle is removed, of finding what he earnestly wishes. The last line is nearly in the same predicament; but this, from the Egyptian, he thus ventures to restore. We here read in the Greek version (Σ) ΤΕΡΕΟΤ ΛΙΘΟΤ ΤΟΙΣ ΤΕ 'ΙΕΡΟΙΣ ΚΑΙ ΕΓΧΩΡΙΟΙΣ ΚΑΙ 'ΕΛΛΗΝΙΚΟΙΣ ΓΡΑΜΜΑΣΙΝ ΚΑΙ ΣΤΗΣΑΙ ΤΩΝ ΤΕ ΠΡΩΤΩΝ ΚΑΙ ΔΕΥΤΕΡΩΝ . . . . Here the chasm commences, which, if we suppose that the line extended to the end, must have occupied the space of about fifty letters. With this idea, M. Akerblad thus fills up the void, from the analogy of the Egyptian inscription *και δευτερον και τριτων ιερων εν οις ιδρυσεται η εικων του θεου βασιλεως αιωνοβιου*; which expresses, that this stone should be erected in each of the temples of the first, second, and third order, in which the statue of the king should be set up. We understand that Mr. PORSON has completed the chasms in the Greek. It would be singular if in this passage an agreement should be found. One objection, which we had anticipated, M. Akerblad attempts to remove, by substituting ΕΣΤΙΝ for *ιδρυσεται*, which better corresponds with the space; and instead of the two last words, for the same reason, ΕΠΙΦΑΝΟΥΣ, as equivalent to the three last Egyptian.

It is added, as deserving of notice, that, in the hieroglyphic inscription, three figures placed in the last line horizontally, and under-marked from left to right I II III, apparently confirm the restoration proposed.

This letter is followed by M. DE SACY's answer; for which we must refer to the tract itself, simply observing, that it reflects the highest honour on its amiable and excellent author.

It being understood that the Antiquarian Society is shortly to publish the Egyptian inscription, Mr. Akerblad's alphabet is annexed, with the hope of its serving towards a full explanation.

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ART. IX.—*Inscriptionis Phœniciaë Oxoniensis nova Interpretatio. Auctore J. D. Akerblad. Parisiis, ex Typographiâ Reipublicæ. Paris. 1802.*

*A new Interpretation of the Phœnician Inscription at Oxford. By J. D. Akerblad. 8vo. Imported by Payne and Mackinlay.*

WHILE M. Akerblad was engaged in explaining the Phœnician inscription, discovered by him on a monument at Athens, and since published in the Commentaries of the Royal Society of Göttingen, that, which is the subject of this publication, particularly caught his attention. Of the thirty-three inscriptions from Cyprus, in Pococke's *Description of the East*, it occurs as the second in the 2d vol. p. 213. Thence, it was copied by the late acute and elegant abbé Barthelemy, in the 30th tome, p. 405, of the History of the *Académie des Inscriptions*, accompanied with an

explanatory paper. At this version, which was the first attempted, Mr. Swinton, of Oxford, bitterly carped, superceding it by another of his own, *toto celo* differing from it. A Latin version of Swinton's, in English, was introduced by Dr. Chandler into the *Marmora Oxoniensia*, part II. p. 7, where the monument itself is inserted, engraven from the original at Oxford. A *fac-simile* of that engraving is here given by M. Akerblad, who, before he exhibits his own translation, adverts to the arguments of Barthelémy and Swinton, in support of their different versions.

The text, as read by the abbé, appears thus in the Chaldee character :

אנם עבדאסר בן עבדססם בן חר מצבת  
שלם בחי . . . . נאת על משכב נחתי לעלם כלא  
שתת אשתי מתרת בת תאם . . . . בן עבדמלך

and is rendered *Je dors d'un sommeil éternel, moi Abdassar fils d'Abdissim fils de Chad (de la ville) de Tsabeth. Après avoir passé tranquillement ma vie, je me suis reposé dans le tombeau pour la suite des siècles. Mathreth, mon épouse, fille de Tham . . . fils d'Abdmelec, a posé ce monument.*

With a temper very different from Swinton's\*, Mr. Akerblad ascribes the want of success, in the abbé's translation, to the inaccuracy of Pococke's transcript, adding at the same time—*Tantâ quoque cum modestiâ hanc suam proposuit explicationem, ut nullo modo meruerit tam acriter a Swintono vellicari, qui, si quid vidimus, multo longius a veritate deflexit.*

Swinton read the original as follows :

אנך עבדאסר בן עבדססם בן חר-מצבת  
למב חיי כ שנאת עלם מכב נהתי לעלם כלא  
מתי לאמת-בם תרת בת תאם בן עבדמלך

of which this is given as the sense :

*Marmor Abdasari filii Abdsesami filii Hhuri—Lapis sepulcralis Lembi (vel Lemebi) qui vixit videnos annos sæculi doloris (id. est, vitæ infelicitèr actæ),—descendunt in æternum carcerem sepulcri mortui hi Amathuntis (seu potius occisi hi Amathusii)—monumentum structura est domûs (vel familiæ Tami filii Abdmeleci.*

Having stated very fully his objections to the mode of interpretation and import of the foregoing versions, M. Akerblad substitutes his own, reading the original thus :

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\* The conduct of this plagiarist towards the ABBE' was without example atrocious. This the unpublished documents in our possession would decidedly prove, if the writings of Swinton himself did not abound with vouchers. Not content to rob abbé Barthelémy whenever he could, like a merciless footpad, he had recourse to the bludgeon. REV.



אנכי עבדאסר בן עבדססם בן הר מצבת  
למי בחיי יפנאת על משכב נחתי לעולם כלא  
שתי לאשתי עשתרת בת תאם בן עבדמלך

and in this manner expressing the sense: *Ego Abedasar filius Abedsusami filii Churi, monumentum illi quæ, me vivente, discessit a placido meo thalamo in æternum, posui, (nempe) uxori meæ Astarti filię Taami filii Abedmeleci.*

Having subjoined remarks in confirmation of his version, M. Akerblad conjectures it as probable, that this inscription is of a date antecedent to the conquest of Cyprus by the first of the Lagidæ, above 300 years, if not 400, before Christ.

This disquisition, written at Stockholm, January 1801, is closed with an appendix, occasioned by the abbé Barthelemy's Letter to the Marquis Olivieri, which, till his arrival at Paris, M. Akerblad had not seen. In justice to the abbé, his corrected translation is annexed, together with his conjectures in support of it. As amended, it thus stands:—*'Moi Abdassar fils d'Abdissem fils de Char, ou de Hhour . . . je me suis reposé sur le lit, (ou dans le tombeau), pour la suite des siècles, (Moi) Astarté, fille de Tham fils d'Abdmelec, ai posé (ce monument).'*

From the rudeness of the characters, or inaccuracy of the copy, the sense of the inscription is still open to conjecture. We greatly prefer M. Akerblad's version, but cannot accede to the term *PLACIDO*.

ART. X.—*Collection de Mémoires, &c. Paris. 1802.*

*Collection of Memoirs and official Correspondences on the Administration of the Colonies, and especially on French and Dutch Guiana. By V. P. Malouet, formerly Minister of the Colonies and of the Marine. 5 Vols. 8vo. Imported by De Boffe.*

A WORK upon the subject announced in the title-page is much wanted both in France and England, in Holland and Portugal: and the abilities of M. Malouet, for conducting it with accuracy and spirit, have been long known to the world. We have stated it to consist of five volumes 8vo; for not more than this number have hitherto been printed: but the work, when complete, will extend to eight volumes; and we are promised the remainder very speedily.

The cultivation of some part of Guiana has been a favourite object with the French government ever since the peace of 1763, in which Canada was ceded to the English. The duke de Choiseul was at this time minister; and he trusted, by the establishment of a vast colony of Europeans in this fatal spot, to atone for the loss his country had just sustained. The promises held out by the administration were most flattering; and every rank of people was

seised with the spirit of adventure:—needy peasants and rich capitalists, young men of good education, whole families of artisans, of citizens, of noblesse, of persons in every branch of civil and military employment, all eagerly flocked to avail themselves of the invitation of the government; while musicians and players accompanied them, resolved that the new colony should not be without its amusements. The morasses of the torrid zone were soon discovered, however, to constitute a woe'ul climate for the natives of Alsace and Lorraine. Instead of realising a rapid fortune, scarce an individual who first embarked survived a single twelvemonth to give the sad history of the desolation and pestilence which had opened their remorseless jaws and destroyed his companions. The government, however, still persisted in its delirious project, and continued for many years to support it at an annual expense of not less than fourteen thousand men, and thirty thousand livres. We shall briefly pursue the history of this immense charnel-house of mankind in the words of our author, as they occur in his introduction.

Scarcely had three years elapsed after the destruction of the colony at Coroa (the establishment we have just referred to), when a new plan appeared for the cultivation of another part of Guiana, on the river Aproaco. It was the minister of the marine himself, M. Praslin, in conjunction with M. Dubucq, a most intelligent man, and director, under his control, of the administration of the colonies, who was at the head of this new company. This plan was not altogether so absurd as the former; but, equally founded on hypothesis, it experienced the same fate. The government lost the sum it advanced, and the company itself eight hundred thousand franks. A few years sufficed to bury this second catastrophe in oblivion. In 1776, Cayenne became a new Peru, for the third time within the space of twelve years. A baron de Besner, who sought to be appointed its governor, and who arrived there after my administration, electrified every body's head. Connected with men of literature, with financiers, with courtiers, he distributed among them his memoirs, and interested every one in the success of his projects, which were adapted to the various tastes and understandings of those to whom they were addressed. The commencement of his recitals consisted always of the false relations which had been communicated, and the catastrophes, as well as their causes, which it was so easy to avoid. Then came, for M. de Buffon and the naturalists with whom he associated, the most stimulating details (*détails les plus piquans*) on the natural and mineralogical history of Guiana. To the courtiers, to the financiers, he presented the prospect of productions the most rich, through the medium of the most trifling advances. He had returned from Cayenne; he had traversed the rivers, the forests of the continent; he had beheld this land covered with sarsaparilla, with sassafras, with indigenous spices, with the wrecks of precious stones. A soil thus rich demanded only an arm for its harvest, and this not the arm of European peasants, who have already, said he, been sacrificed with absurd cruelty, but the natural arm of the country, that of the Indians themselves, whom it would be easy to re-unite, and to employ at a trivial expense. There were twenty thousand Maroon



negroes of Surinam, who petitioned an asylum on our domain, and whose residence and labour might be easily negotiated with Holland. All these fine tales, transformed into positive facts in well-written memoirs, produced such an impression, that the council of Monsieur were persuaded that the richest portion of his income was, from this time, to be looked for in Guiana; and, among the financiers, two men of distinguished ability, M. Paulk, farmer-general, and M. de Belleisle, chancellor of the duke of Orléans, placed themselves at the head of a third Guiana company, with a capital of little less than three hundred thousand pounds sterling, and applied to the government for a charter, containing special privileges of cultivation and commerce. I was, at this time, commissary-general of the marine, and member of the committee of colonial legislation, and was charged, by M. de Sartine, with the examination and report of these projects. I did not know Guiana, but I had served at St. Domingo: I was a proprietor in that island, and had acquired some precise ideas on colonial commerce and cultivation, on the expense of a new establishment, on the probable profits which an intelligent capitalist might expect from adventuring his money in American lands; and I found no fixed datum in the memoirs which were sent to me, whence a grand enterprise could be calculated upon, determined, or advised. Nevertheless, as the task entrusted to me was of importance, both actually and relatively, inasmuch as it would aid or oppose the petition of Monsieur and his council—in order to resist a financial company of credit, and the infatuation of many powerful men, among whom was M. de Maurepas—I was anxious to trace the history of Cayenne to its foundation, and collected, in the colonial dépôt at Versailles, whatever had been said or done with respect to this colony from its birth. I offered a summary of all this in my report; and in every thing which personally interested Monsieur, I deemed it my duty to banish from that prince the illusive prospect which had been presented to him. I had a first conference with himself, which was repeated with his council; and it was not without much difficulty that I obtained from his superintendent, Cromet, the abandonment of a plan which compromised Monsieur, and would certainly have deranged his finances. The company of Paulk was more persevering. There would have been fewer inconveniences in leaving to this man his new attempts at cultivation and commerce; but as, in this concern, I had been the representative of government, I could not suffer it to give its sanction, for a third time, to a ridiculous adventure. Protector of the fortunes of individuals, whence the fortune of the public originates, the sovereign ought rarely to grant his favour to hazardous speculations.

The proprietors conferred frequently in my presence: they communicated to me their scheme for commerce and cultivation, with their system of administration. The company had already a director-general, secretaries, a store-keeper, captains of ships, freighted vessels; they were about to make, all at once, large plantations of coffee, of tobacco, of cocoa, to cultivate the vine, and, finally, to possess a large establishment of black cattle; and the last article in their prospectus was a cheese-manufactory, by which they expected a vast profit. I merely detail this extravagance, to show to what



point the rêveries of gain may extend; and I still repeat, that the principals in this association were men of discernment. David, formerly governor of Senegal, and one of the largest proprietors, had given several valuable memoirs on the interior commerce of Africa: Belleisle and Paulk were admitted to possess strong financial heads.'

M. de Besner still, however, persisted in his favourite enterprise, and shortly afterwards sallied forth with a new pamphlet, so extremely imposing and popular, as to produce a very considerable impression at Versailles, and to compel M. de Sartine to hesitate, and more than ever to captivate the prime-minister, M. de Maurepas, in its behalf. The result was, after a long conference between the latter and our author, that the decision respecting the advantages of an open company, to the extent of that hereby solicited, should be made upon the spot itself, to which M. de Malouet was almost immediately dispatched, as superintendant-general, to investigate the facility of accomplishing the intentions of the company. Our author embarked at Havre, in September, 1776, and arrived at the French settlement at Cayenne towards the end of the ensuing month. He seems to have left no means unattempted by which he had a possibility of obtaining information; convening, shortly after his arrival, an extraordinary colonial assembly, to the deputies of which he submitted every question whose solution was necessary to enlighten his government; allowing ample time for a steady opinion upon these points; and personally engaging, in the mean while, in a tour through all the posts and over all the rivers of French Guiana. In the prosecution of his views, however, M. de Malouet encountered many obstacles, and of no small magnitude. He was, shortly after his return from traversing the country, attacked with a dangerous illness, which prevented him from being present at any of the sittings of the colonial assembly till the month of May, 1777; he was regarded by the colonists as an enemy to their commercial independence, and chief instigator to a new and exclusive company—an idea sufficiently ludicrous, considering that he was beheld at home in a light directly the reverse; and, to complete his misfortunes, he had no sooner commenced his voyage than the industry of his opponents at Paris had so far prevailed over M. de Sartine himself, as to induce him to transmit positive orders for carrying many points of the proposed plan into effect, which he had antecedently received as positive an assurance should remain undecided till his own general report upon the subject. The grand aim of the founder and director of the company was to cultivate the soil, not by colonists, but by those hordes of Maroon negroes of Surinam, who were well known to be in a state of perpetual revolt against the Dutch government, and who, for this purpose, were to be encouraged in such revolt, and excited to emigrate from their own masters, and enter into French pay. It was obvious that such a conduct would embroil the settlement at Cayenne with the Dutch government; but our author was instructed, in order to counteract this evil, to evince a double degree of dissimulation. He was to commence remonstrances himself, and to pretend, to the government at Surinam, that the French colonists at Cayenne were perpetually and very considerably suffering from the incursions

of the disaffected Maroons, who ought to be subjugated and chastised; and he was ostensibly to express an utter aversion for these borders of lawless banditti, while actually encouraging, in private, their emigration and settlement in French Guiana. M. Malouet did not like his instructions; but he did not choose to surrender his situation. He selected a middle course, and requested leave, which was immediately conceded to him, to undertake an official visit to Surinam, in order to obtain every degree of information in his power respecting the Dutch colony, its expenses and returns to the mother country, its present military strength, and the number of refractory negroes with whom it was at this time engaged in hostilities. He was received at Paramaribo with all possible honours, both by the Orange party—or those attached to the stadtholder, at the head of which was the commander of the troops—and that of the company, whose leader was the governor. He accomplished his purpose, so far as related to local information; and, on his return to Cayenne, obtained permission to take back with him M. Guisan, a skilful engineer and most excellent man, the acquisition of whom, he adds, with a gratitude, at least, that does honour to his heart, was the most important service he rendered to the French settlement. M. Malouet, however, was still unfortunate: he once more became ill from fatigue of body and mind; and he was equally thwarted in his operations by the colonists and the company at Paris. He nevertheless persevered in his plans of improvement; he cut canals, drained morasses, established plantations, completed roads. The opposition which continued to be urged against him by the company was, however, so violent and irksome, that he resolved upon returning to Paris; a resolution he speedily fulfilled, and was received by the king and his ministers with much polite attention, and appointed minister of Guiana. During his voyage to France (it was in the midst of the American war), the ship in which he sailed was unfortunately captured by an English privateer, and carried to one of our own ports. Here our author remained for some months, and he speaks in very handsome terms of the friendship and assistance he experienced in this country. After having held, for some time, the office of minister of Guiana, he was surprised to find the interest of the Guiana company so prevalent, as to obtain the appointment of M. de Besner to the superintendence of Guiana in the quality of governor. Besner sailed to his establishment, overthrew, on his arrival, the entire system of M. Malouet, and once more ruined the colony by the introduction of his own. He did not survive, however, to lament the fruits of his folly: he died about a twelvemonth after his arrival; and, with himself, perished all the projects and hopes of the company.

Such are the ample materials of which the introduction before us consists. The work itself, as far as it relates to Guiana, is divided into five sections; containing—I. Pieces collected upon the subject of Cayenne, previous to our author's voyage. II. Report of operations during his residence there. III. His expedition to Surinam. IV. His correspondence with the Guiana company. V. His report on his return to France.—Many of his documents were, however, destroyed



by fire in 1793, and he urges this as some apology for whatever deficiency may be found in the collection of which the work consists.

In his topographical history of Guiana, we are surprised that no notice is taken of the dispute which has lately existed between the French and Portuguese governments, as to the confines of their respective territories in this quarter; which seems to have proceeded from a doubt as to which of the two Oyapoks was intended to constitute this boundary in the opinion of the plenipotentiaries, who decided, in the treaty of Utrecht, upon a river of this name, as the limit of the two countries, and who, probably, did not know that the name of Oyapok was appropriated to two rivers, one on each side of the equator. In the chart prefixed to the first volume, we meet indeed with the northern Oyapok alone; for the chart terminates at the mouth of the river of the Amazons, and does not quite extend, as it ought to have done, to the southern Oyapok, which, notwithstanding his silence upon the subject, it is nevertheless obvious, from other circumstances, that our author regards as the official boundary.

In the Appendix to our 35th vol. p. 493, we have examined this subject more at large, upon a chart of M. Buache, and have given it as our opinion, that the French have a legal claim to the intermediate country between these two Oyapoks, the southern river having been decidedly animadverted to in the treaty of Utrecht; and, equally enabled, in the present instance, to enforce their claim by positive right and military power, it is not to be wondered at that Portugal has readily relinquished her pretensions.

We have been much pleased with our author's account of his expedition to Surinam, where, as commissary of marine, he was received with a pomp and splendor which were highly gratifying to him at the time, and which he has by no means forgotten at the present period. After having explained his views, and endeavoured, as much as possible, to ingratiate himself into the esteem of the chiefs of the two antagonist parties—of the stadtholder and the company—he readily obtained intelligence of every description; charts, plans, projects, tables of income and expenditure of the colony, were all at his service; and he was at length invited, with great preparation, to visit the cordon of troops which secured the colony from the incursions of the Maroons. This was what he earnestly desired. The cordon commences on the river of Surinam, at the Savannah, or town of the Jews, fifteen leagues above Paramaribo. Arrived at this post, our author was particularly pleased with two of the Jewish townsmen, whose erudition and intelligence struck him most forcibly. Of these, the one had made a dictionary of the Indian-Galiti tongue, which, by a comparison with the rabbinic Hebrew, he had attempted to prove was unquestionably, and especially with regard to its substantives, derived from the latter. Our review of Mr. Allwood's *Literary Antiquities of Greece* will, in some measure, account for such a connexion. We have traced a migration of the radicals of the more ancient Oriental tongues to a vast variety of distant and barbarous hordes, who seem to have been cut off, till the present æra, from all connexion with the rest of the world. The other Jew who attracted M. Malouet's attention ap-



pears to have been possessed of more general learning still. Born and educated in this colony, so unpropitious to all mental improvement, and never having quitted Surinam at the time our author visited him, he had been able, at thirty years of age, observes he, 'without any other resource than his own genius, to raise himself above the prejudices of his sect; to dive into their history; to rectify the errors of Boulanger, in his writings on antiquity; to learn methodically Arabic, Chaldee, rabbinical Hebrew, as well as the greater part of modern languages, which he both wrote and spoke correctly. And this man, who passes eight hours a day in his study, who maintains a correspondence with the most celebrated characters of Europe, occupies himself, nevertheless, in buying and selling old galleons. Such is the empire of education; and yet none of our modern governments condescend to superintend it.

'I visited this cordon at one of its terminations, and I traversed it, fifteen days afterwards, to the extent of five leagues, in a party. It is an admirable work, both with respect to its execution and the difficulties surmounted. It is inconceivable, by a Frenchman, that three hundred Negroes should have been able, in ten months, to finish what I have seen. They have traced a line across woods, morasses, hills, and valleys: the dyke of which it consists is sixty-six feet wide, and its length, from one extremity to the other, will be twenty-two leagues. It runs across three rivers, and gun-boats and armed chaloupes preserve, in these places, its continuation: the guard-houses for officers, piquets, and common sergeants, are executed with an intelligence and skill of which we are altogether ignorant. Nothing that can contribute to health and commodiousness is forgotten. Fruit-trees and pulse are planted through the whole extent of the undertaking, and surrounded with strong palisades of hard and painted wood. One single engineer superintends the works, who is seconded by intelligent officers and sergeants. The public labour is farmed, and the person who farms it receives from the colony thirty sous a day for every slave employed.' Vol. iii. p. 52.

In the comparison which M. Malouet has instituted between the plantations of Surinam and those of St. Domingo, he gives a very decided preference to the latter. The soil of St. Domingo is far more productive, and requires very considerably less labour. In a similar comparison between Surinam and Cayenne, he admits of a parity of advantages and disadvantages, so far as relates to the soil and general face of the two countries:

'— but if,' says he, 'after having compared the respective soils, we advance to an equal examination of the respective inhabitants, it is here we recoil, and are stopped by the degradation of the character of our own colonists. Poor, ignorant, and satisfied with their manner of existence; intoxicated with their prejudices and their practices, the latter are angry at every check which is given to their apathy. Accustomed to receive from the king and his ministers every species of assistance, they regard it as a matter of course. Public spirit, emulation, the desire of existence, have no place here; and all this is the

natural effect of an age of lethargy. The force of habit is the most powerful of all forces; and every existing habit in this country tends to produce some obstruction to the faculties of the mind and the body.—We ought not, therefore, (continues M. Malouet) to depend upon the generation of the present day; but in presenting other views, other means to that which will follow; in placing beneath their eyes more active motives and resources, examples and lessons, it will profit by them, and such is the object which I have proposed to myself in what I have done and written.' Vol. iii. p. 105.

The fourth and fifth volumes are devoted to a colony become more interesting still by the very extraordinary events of the day—we mean that of St. Domingo: but the space we have already devoted, prevents us from accompanying our author any further at present. We shall, nevertheless, attend him in another number.

(To be continued.)

ART. XI.—*Les Cinq Promesses, &c.*

*The Five Promises: a Picture of the Consular Government towards France, England, Italy, Germany, and, above all, Sweden. By Sir Francis D'Ivernois.*

PROPHECY is the gift of inspiration, without which the most elaborate research is useless: and as sir Francis has no pretensions to the latter, it is not to be wondered at that he should often have been deceived by adventuring upon the former. He is, nevertheless, determined to persevere, and we have, at least, to applaud his courage. The volume before us opens with a long and laborious introduction respecting the finances of France, in which our author equally opposes the calculations of M. Necker, M. Himbert, as delivered in the tribunate, and those of the *Moniteur*, officially stated to have been founded upon the details of M. Gaudin himself, the financial minister. 'The republic,' observes M. Necker\*, 'enjoys at present five hundred millions of revenue, and the additional centimes amount to about forty millions.' M. Necker collected his information perhaps from the following assertion of one of the *Moniteurs* of last May:—'Examine the details of the minister of finance, and you will see that, on the first of Vendemiaire, year X, there was an effective return of 473 millions into the public treasury, and that, in the budget, this return was not presumed to be worth more than 435 millions. What more certain calculation than that which reposes the future upon the past?'

'I leave to my readers,' says our author, 'to find an appropriate epithet for this assertion of the reporter, when they learn that I have succeeded in obtaining the detail in which he confides; and that, having examined it in my turn, I have seen written, by the hand of

\* *Dernières Vues de Politique et de Finances.*

the minister himself (p. 15), that the returns belonging to the year IX, and of which the treasury has been able to dispose, have not exceeded, nor even amounted to, 353 millions. Peruse, now, the passage of the minister, a passage so strangely disfigured by the only tribune who has taken the trouble to examine these accounts that he might indicate their results. "When the collection of all the revenues of the year IX shall be completed, their total will amount to 473,508,511 francs net money." Observe (continues sir Francis) that this was in Germinal (April 1802), that is to say, in the seventh month of the year X, that Gaudin announced the hope of amassing 473 millions upon the ways and means of the year IX, when they shall have been thoroughly closed (*paracherés*): but observe also, that he is completely on his guard against specifying this period. And the minister acted right: for, upon the 473 millions which the tribune Himbert represented as actually paid, in the course of seven months, into the public treasury, there is, among others, one single article of twenty millions, the consolidation of which depends upon the disposal of national domains, which are, at present, not even offered for sale; and whose purchasers, should any present themselves, are not bound upon the terms of the law to pay for them within the space of four or five years. This then is sufficient to prove that the tribune Himbert, in conjunction with all such hyper-calculators, has taken receipts in expectancy for receipts already realised; and that, under such a mode of calculation, he is certainly able to affirm that the future always reposes upon the past.' Introduction, p. iv.

We are not, like sir Francis, able to obtain even a copy of the minister's report here referred to. But we doubt whether M. Himbert referred to this isolated sentence alone. In the revenue referred to, both by M. Himbert and the *Moniteur* of the sixth of last May, we believe the forty millions annually accruing from the centimes are not included; nor are the *octrois*, or municipal contributions, which amount to twenty millions more; nor the barrier or pass-duties, which are calculated at about an additional fifteen millions. We shall leave the contest, however, to our author and M. Necker: though we cannot avoid observing that sir Francis discovers a partiality for his own opinion, which his prior speculations can never justify, when he asserts that every Frenchman, capable of reflexion, judges of the republic precisely like himself: nor can we conceive that the following declaration of M. Berenger is an adequate apology for all the mis-calculations and erroneous predictions he has hitherto offered to the world:—'If fortune and genius have alternately saved France, it has been through means and events upon which it was not possible to reckon. But the extraordinary chances of fortune are exhausted in proportion as we re-enter into an ordinary situation.' How much soever our author may object to the report concerning the revenues of the year IX, those of the year X, of which the result has been offered in the French journals since the present publication, are announced to have been far more productive still. That there is ground for exception to the official statement, is highly probable; but we can by no means think the deficit so considerable as our author, upon his own principles, would calculate it; nor that the republic of



France is in such an extremity of financial chaos as must necessarily result from such a calculation. The introduction closes as follows :

' And, notwithstanding what may be said, my labour will not be less useful to France than to her neighbours; for it is one of my chief objects to establish that their own salvation depends, above all things, upon her surrendering herself, without fear from abroad, to the cultivation of the useful arts, in order that she may re-acquire, as speedily as possible, her rank among the industrious, flourishing, and wealthy nations. Yes, I hope to establish it, that whether the object be to live in peace or hostilities with this warlike people, it is of nearly equal importance to assist her in recovering her former career of prosperity; since, in the first instance, such prosperity is the only mean of renewing with her beneficial transactions; and, in the second, of making her participate in the chance of those losses which war entails upon itself. But whatever be the importance of developing this all-pacific doctrine, that the return of Frenchmen to industry and ease depends upon the moderation of the taxes it will levy upon them; it is just as important to convince the continental powers, that if she do not speedily and largely retrench her expenditure, this alone will compel her, in spite perhaps of herself, to re-commence hostilities, which have individually given countenance to such expenditure to the present hour; that it is not less useful, under the existing circumstances of the day, to study the operations of her financiers, than the intrigues of her diplomatists; that the ravenous wants of her revenue are probably more to be apprehended than the burning lust of her ambition; and that, of all which occurs in France, the destructive action of a deficit, as it is called, is that which ought to produce the greatest portion of foreign inquietude.' p. 37.

We proceed to the body of the work, which opens with an explicit declaration that, in many respects, the French republic is highly indebted to the talents and measures of Bonaparte. It then advances to an enumeration of the benefits he had promised she should enjoy, and which he nevertheless refuses to her in spite of the most solemn engagements.

' The five grand promises here referred to are—First, that of establishing her government upon the sacred rights of property, and of putting an end to all systems of confiscation. Secondly, that of respecting and causing to be respected at home the constitution of the year VIII. Thirdly, that of conquering peace abroad, without ever abusing his victories by an enlargement of his pretensions, or the aggrandisement of France beyond the limits assigned to her by nature. Fourthly, that of fixing the repose of the republic and the happiness of Europe upon the faith of treaties. Finally, that of re-establishing public credit, by an inviolable fidelity to every engagement of the state.' p. 16.

These are the promises on which the volume before us is founded : and an open and corrupt breach of them constitutes the list of high crimes and misdemeanours preferred against the chief consul in the present bill of indictment, and for which sir Francis d'Ivernois, as

attorney-general for the different powers of Europe, now arraigns him at the bar of the public.

Under the first charge, our author commences his observations with regard to the act of amnesty, destined, according to its preamble, 'to exchange severity for indulgence, and to dispose every heart to an oblivion of the past:' and more especially with regard to his having appropriated the patrimonial forests of the emigrants to the service of the public, after having, in this very act, declared them to be inalienable, and that they should revert to their respective proprietors as soon as they had complied with the requisitions of the act itself, and had hereby been restored to the rights of citizenship. This, observes sir Francis, is an act of injustice which neither the directory nor Robespierre himself had ever dared to perpetrate. Hitherto, says he, in the most plundering times of the republic, it was a custom adopted by the plunderers themselves, that every individual whom they cancelled from the list of emigrants should enter, of full right, into all his undisposed property. It was thus that, in spite of their demonstrated emigration, the Girondists or their representatives were re-inducted into possession of all their sequestered estates, and the directory itself never sought for a pretext to prolong the sequestration on any of the unsold estates of those whom it had admitted to have been improperly entered upon that fatal list. I regret to state it: it was reserved for the consular government to discover a pretended exception to such an allowance: and hence to deduce a point of public right to accomplish, by such a fact, the ruin of so many individuals, who, from the general shipwreck of their fortunes, had not a fragment remaining beyond these sequestered but still unalienated forests' (p. 16). It is admitted, however, by our author, that, in the decree appropriating these forests to the service of the public, the chief consul has engaged himself to indemnify their proprietors. He contends, nevertheless, that the fiscal system itself has sustained a very serious loss by such a resolution; and as to the promise, says he, of indemnifying the ex-proprietors on some future day, how is it possible for them to put any confidence in it, or to forget that of the hypothetic milliard made to the armies on these same forests! Our author next advances the flagitious conduct of Bonaparte with regard to the right of pre-succession, or the famous decree of the year III, which, under a title of this description, took from every father, or ascending heir of an emigrant, and even during the life of such claimant, that portion of property to which, upon the demise of the emigrant, he would eventually have succeeded, had no such emigration occurred.

In consequence of the severity of this law, it was seldom acted upon by the directory; and in almost every instance in which it was enforced, it was executed with much mitigation. 'The consular administration is the first,' says sir Francis, 'which, without exception, as without remorse, has proceeded to these partitions of pre-succession; and its activity has been attended with such success, that this branch of the revenue is the only one which exceeded, in the year VIII, the calculation at which it was rated.'—We cannot, for ourselves, but object to the whole system of attainder, whether, as in our own country, it have a successive, or, as in the present in-

stance in France, a retro-active effect. Bonaparte, however, did not make the law; he found it already manufactured for his use; and if he have applied it too strictly, his apologists may, perhaps, advance some excuse for him in the deplorable state in which he found the financial department—a state so deplorable indeed, that, in several earlier predictions of our author, no conceivable or possible arrangement of its wreck could preserve the government in existence till the present period.

As to the second breach of promise of which sir Francis complains—that of respect for the constitution—

‘Although’ (says he) ‘those who have taken the pains to examine the first consular constitution, had never any idea of its durability, and were not sorry when Bonaparte laid it aside, especially with respect to the emigrants; yet since it was his own work, and he had sworn to respect it, and to make it respected, those republicans who trusted to his oaths may fairly reproach him with the acts by which he has trodden it under foot, without any other formality than that of metamorphosing the *conservative* into a *violative* senate. It is but too true that the first circumstance in which this body ever spoke of him is, that in which he erected himself into a revolutionary tribunal, to declare in the name of the French people, that, in order the better to preserve the constitution, it was proper to *suspend* it towards about a hundred individuals suspected of having conspired against the chief magistrate. It is equally true that, in cases in which he allowed himself severer suspensions still—among others, in which the senate refused to declare him magistrate for life—he has not given himself the trouble of recurring to similar *Senatus-Consultes*. Once more; if it were the constitutional act, and not his own sword, which conferred upon him the consular purple, he has declared himself to have forfeited it completely by accepting the presidency of the Italian republic, in contempt of article IV, which decrees, that, *the qualification of French citizenship is lost, by the acceptance of functions or pensions offered by a foreign government*. But the possessors of this *magna charta* did not inspect so minutely; and, perhaps, he is the grander in their eyes for having rejected in his own person the vulgar title of *French citizen*. Afflictive recollection! The people of France have led to the scaffold the only one of their kings who ever meant to adopt this title as an ornament; and it is on the head of a Corsican gentleman, who regards it as below him, that they have placed the crown of Lewis XVI and Henry IV.’ p. 40.

Our author notices other violations of the constitutional act, under the same head—in the *purification*, on the 18th of Fructidor, of the council of ancients and that of five hundred—and exhibits the following contrast between the Constitutional Act, sanctioned in the year VIII, and the organic *Senatus-Consulte*, proclaimed in the year X.

CONSTITUTIONAL ACT.

SENATUS-CONSULTE.

‘Art. XXXIX. The government is entrusted to three con-

‘Art. XXXIX. The consuls are *for life*.’



suls, nominated for *ten years*, and indefinitely re-eligible. For this time, the third consul is nominated for five years alone.'

' Art. XXVI. The tribunate is composed of an *hundred* members.'

' Arts. XV, XXVI, and XXVII. The conservative senate is composed of *eighty* members, immoveable, and for life, of the *age of forty years*, at the least.—The nomination to the office of senator appertains *to the senate*.—A senator is for ever ineligible to every other public function.'

' Art. XLVI. If the government be informed that any conspiracy is brooding against the state, it may issue mandates of appearance or mandates of arrest against the persons who are suspected as contrivers or accomplices. But if in a delay of *ten days* after their arrest, they be not liberated or committed to the course of justice, the minister who subscribed the mandate, is guilty of the *CRIME of arbitrary detention*.'

This last article of the *Senatus-Consulte*, we agree with sir Francis, is the most important of the whole ; and nothing less than ' a *permanent* suspension of the act of *habeas corpus* ;' since the express prohibition of detaining French citizens for more than ten days on an unpublished charge, is hereby transformed into an express authority of detaining them for a time indefinite, and consequently for their

' Art. LXXVII. From the date of the year XII, the tribunate shall be reduced to *fifty* members.'

' Arts. LXII, LXIII, and LXIV. The members of the grand council of the legion of honour are members of the senate, *of whatever age they may be*.—The first consul may, besides these, *nominate* to the senate—without any previous presentation by the electoral colleges of the departments—citizens distinguished by their services and their talents, on condition nevertheless that they are of the age required by the constitution ; and that the number of senators shall in no case exceed *one hundred and twenty*.—The senators may be consuls, ministers, members of the legion of honour, inspectors of public instruction, and employed on temporary and extraordinary missions.'

' Art. XLV. The senate by its acts, entitled *Senatus-Consultes*, determines *the time* in which individuals, arrested by virtue of article XLVI of the constitution, must be brought before the tribunals, when they have not been so brought within the *ten days* after their arrest.'

whole lives. We object to all suspensions of the *habeas corpus*, excepting in cases of the most urgent and palpable necessity, whether in France or England: among ourselves we have, of late, had what were called *temporary* suspensions, but suspensions renewed so frequently, as to create no small danger of their becoming *permanent*. How long this *permanency* may continue in France we know not: judging from the variations that have occurred, sir Francis may, at least, console himself with the hope that what he denominates a *permanent suspension*, may be an act of as fleeting a duration as any other that has preceded it. He does not regard the consular constitution as possessed of any solid foundation, and is daily looking for its overthrow.

In his observations on Bonaparte's third promise—that of conquering peace, and of exhibiting moderation towards the conquered—it is obvious that a wide field is before him. We shall not re-traverse with him ground we have so frequently traversed before. We shall only remark, that after glancing at the conduct of the chief consul towards Germany, Italy, and Switzerland, he makes his grand assault from the shores of St. Domingo; and draws his chief accusation of perfidy from his conduct towards the unfortunate Toussaint, whose charge was thus laconically conveyed by the ship in which he was sent, by general Leclerc, as a close prisoner to France, after having been loaded with compliments, flattered with every mark of distinction, and held up to the world as one of the most prominent characters it embraces, for religion as well as political honesty and fidelity.—‘This ambitious man, from the moment that I have pardoned him, has not ceased to *conspire* in private. He has attempted to regain his former influence in the colony. He waited the effect of disease on our armies. Under these circumstances, I have thought it wrong to give him time to consummate his criminal projects. I gave orders to arrest him.’ How uncertain is the train of human events! How slippery the path of perfidy and ambition! Toussaint is already completely revenged: his proud conqueror has died in an inglorious bed: and, from the depths of his dungeon, he is at this moment, perhaps, dictating terms to his consular oppressor. Sir Francis has often triumphed in predicting what has never been accomplished—could he have foreseen this event, he might have exulted indeed.

The breach of the chief consul's fourth promise is altogether confined, in its exemplification, to his conduct with regard to Switzerland. Without following our author into this track, which has already been trodden by every politician, we shall only observe, that the celebrated and intrepid Aloys Reding—who, in consequence of his having, at the head of a small body of militia, given battle, in 1798, to a far superior body of French troops, forced their line sword in hand, and driven them from the plain of Mortgarten, was elected, in October, 1801, first landamman of Helvetia—is a descendant of the equally celebrated patriot R. Reding, who, in 1315, obtained, on the very same plain, a most signal and important victory over the Austrians. Of the victory of Aloys Reding, our author gives the following narrative:

‘Prior to his leading his brethren in arms to this desperate attack,

the illustrious heir of his name addressed them in a discourse which they have preserved, which they will transmit to their descendants, and which the historians of Greece would have regarded as worthy of Leonidas. "Brave comrades! beloved citizens! Behold the decisive moment. Overpowered with enemies, abandoned by our friends, it only remains for us to try whether we can courageously imitate the example which our fathers have set us on this very spot. Let us not deceive ourselves in this solemn hour. Death awaits us almost to a certainty. As to myself, I promise not to abandon you in the utmost danger. *Death and no retreat.*" "*Death and no retreat!*" unanimously exclaimed his soldiers. Two of them having now advanced from their ranks and tendered their hand, as though eager to swear to the declaration, he gave the signal of combat to his little troop, and the conquerors of Europe were themselves conquered by a handful of militia-men, who, three times in the same day, prevented them from rallying, and at every time made a still greater carnage.'

Our author ventures to predict that all Switzerland, like Piédmont, will now be annexed to the empire of the Gauls, and thinks it obvious that Bonaparte had this intention in perpetual view, even at the moment when he withdrew his troops from the country; which was nothing more than a manœuvre, to give him a pretext for sending them back redoubled in their number.

In evincing the chief consul's breach of his promise to maintain fidelity to the engagements of the state, our author does little more than recapitulate what he has before advanced; and on which, therefore, we have no necessity to dilate. The work is written in his usual style; and those who have been pleased with his former disquisitions, will find equal entertainment in the present.



# RETROSPECT OF FOREIGN LITERATURE.

## FRANCE.

*Histoire naturelle, générale, et particulière, des Plantes, &c. A general and particular natural History of Plants, forming a Continuation of the Works of Buffon, and a Part of the complete Course of Natural History publishing by C. S. Sonnini. By C. F. Brisseau Marbel\*. With 24 coloured Figures. 2 vols. 8vo.*—We have already traced the progress of this new course of natural history through the regions of animated nature, and now announce the continuation of the work through the vegetable kingdom. This part of the vast system is introduced by two essays, in which the author explains the distinguishing characters of the three kingdoms of nature, and gives a table of the different component parts of plants. The first book contains an anatomical examination of vegetable organisation. According to the observations of the author, verified by the learned botanists of the National Institute, vegetables are composed of three parts, the membranous, the cellular, and the tubular, which, together, form the different vegetable organs. This view presents the vegetable organisation in a new light, and will probably obtain the attention of botanists. A large table, designed by Sauvage, presents all the particulars of this organisation. The author then treats of the combium of Du Hamel, or the organising substance of vegetables, which contributes to their nourishment and increase. In the second part, the author examines the circulating fluids in the vessels of plants, such as the sap, the oils, the gums, and the peculiar juices. In the third book is the natural history of seeds,

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\* A similar work is published by this author, which has not reached us. If we can trust the foreign journals, it appears much more full and explicit, though confined to two octavo volumes. We perceive a useful addition, viz. a methodical vocabulary, in French and Latin, of the different appellations employed in botany. The execution of the plates is said to be excellent; and a large plate is mentioned with particular commendation, in which the elementary organs of vegetables are represented with peculiar accuracy and beauty.

their germination, the roots, the stalks, and the leaves in their different states. According to the author, it is the *liber* that produces the bark and the wood. The first volume concludes with the history of vegetable irritability, which, according to the author, is owing to an internal vital force: with the history of absorption and perspiration. In the fourth book is an examination of the generation of plants; and in the fifth, of their destruction. At the end is an explanation of the botanical terms, and of the most celebrated systems.

*Les Liliacées. The Liliacea.* By J. P. Redoute, Painter in the National Museum of Natural History. Nos. I. and II. Folio.—We have declined noticing the numerous productions of the continent published in numbers, and have professed only to introduce those of peculiar merit when they first appear. The beauty and accuracy of the present work well warrant our attention. By some improvement in the art of engraving, M. Redoute has been able to catch and fix the splendor and the varied shades of this beautiful family of plants, which soon lose both in the best preserved herbaries. The first number contains four sheets of text, and six plates of the most beautiful workmanship. The plants are the *dimella ensifolia*, *lochenalia tricolor*, *hemerocallis japonica*, *agapanthus umbellatus*, *amaryllis formosissima*, and *tigridia pavonia*. The second number contains the *lilium pomponium*, *pancratium maritimum*, *amaryllis reginæ* and *vittata*, *gladiolus merianus*, and *antholyza cunonia*. Each plant is represented with its flower, and the particulars of its fructification. The latter are marked by a slight sketch in black, so as not to injure the effect of the principal figure. The description contains, besides the synonyms, the habits, the vegetation, the cultivation, and the properties of each plant. The plates and the descriptions, published without order, will be classed and arranged at the conclusion of the work. The same author is publishing the succulent plants, described by M. Decandolle, of which we have just seen the seventeenth number.

*Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire Naturelle, &c. Memoirs illustrative of Natural History, particularly of the Mineralogy of Italy and the adjacent Countries.* By Albert Fortis. 2 vols. 8vo. Paris.—These memoirs have long remained in the cabinet of the author, whose mineralogical travels have been hitherto held in high estimation. Circumstances, not of so much importance as to require our notice in this slight retrospect, have induced the author to publish them. Some facts, hitherto known but imperfectly, occur in these volumes. The first contains, exclusively, a geological essay of the Vicentine, with some interesting local details of this country. In the second we find—1. Letters on the discolites, formerly known by the appellations of lenticular stones, medallie stones, &c. 2. Letters relative to hydropic

and metalloscopic experiments. 3. A memoir on the fossil bones of the elephants of Romagnano, in the Veronese.

*Elémens d'Histoire Naturelle, &c. Elements of Natural History.* By C. L. Millin. 8vo. Paris.—This work has been preferred by the commissioners appointed to select elementary works for the national school. Did the character of M. Millin want any support, this recommendation would supply it. The work has run rapidly, in consequence of these united advantages, to a third edition, which has lately appeared with the various improvements which new discoveries have furnished. The whole is illustrated by six hundred figures, in twenty-two plates. The methodic and alphabetic tables furnish great assistance, not only to the student, but to the proficient, who wishes for a short and ready reference.

*Faune Parisienne; Insectes, &c. The Parisian Fauna; Insects, or a short History of the Insects in the Neighbourhood of Paris, according to the System of Fabricius, preceded by a Discourse on Insects in general, as an Introduction to the Study of Entomology.* By C. A. Walkenaer. 2 Vols. 8vo. With seven Plates.—In following the system of Fabricius, the author has corrected the characters of the classes, which were not sufficiently accurate, as well as of some of the genera, from his own observations, assisted by those of the most experienced entomologists. To the characters of the genus is added an abstract of their history, with a description of their metamorphoses. The new genera of Latreille, Paykull, &c. which appear to be well established on certain and important characters, as well as on natural and well-founded relations, are added.

Among the parts wholly new, we may notice the species, which are arranged under the andrènes and bees, the characters of which are given by Latreille, in his Natural History of Ants; 2. An extract from a larger work on spiders, in which the author is engaged, which will soon be published, with coloured figures, copied from nature. The object of the introductory discourse is mentioned in the title. The entomological language is corrected with peculiar precision and euphony.

*Histoire Naturelle des Volcans, &c. Natural History of Volcanoes.* By C. N. Ordinaire. 8vo. Paris—It was observed, with some truth, in a late periodical work, that 'the Natural History of Volcanoes' was not known on the continent. In reality, it was first published in English, and has only appeared within a few months in France. We have already noticed the volume, and need only add, that it is illustrated by a volcanic map of the world, in which, as usual in France, the names of places are miserably mangled.

*Rapport du Physique et du Morale de l'Homme, &c. The Relation of the natural and moral History of Man.* By Cabanis. 2 Vols.



8vo.—This work, which has been received in France with particular attention, consists of various memoirs, read to the National Institute. The style is correct and elegant; but the author is too decidedly a materialist to claim our regard. The moral relations are only considered in consequence of their connexion with the natural, and the assistance they afford in the study of the latter. The first six memoirs are published in the volumes of the National Institute, and have already been the subjects of our observations. We shall add the titles of the others. The seventh memoir is on ‘the Influence of Diseases on the Formation of Ideas and moral Affections;’ the eighth on ‘the Influence of Regimen on the Morals, Habits, and Dispositions;’ the ninth, on ‘the Influence of Climate on the moral Habits;’ tenth, ‘Considerations respecting animal Life, the first Determinations of Sensibility, Instinct, Sympathy, Sleep, and Delirium;’ eleventh, on the ‘Influence of Morality on the natural History;’ twelfth, ‘of acquired Temperaments.’ We have already given our opinion of this author, and find no reason to change it.

*De la Division, &c. On the most natural Division of the physiologic Phenomena considered in Man, with a short historic Account of M. Bichat. By M. F. R. Buisson. 8vo.*—M. Bichat died at an early age, but had attained no inconsiderable fame by his physiologic works. The arrangement proposed by that author is here modified in many respects; and the labours of M. Buisson, the relative and companion of Bichat, are said to have been approved by the latter. This division is the most natural, because founded on the nature of man. But what is that nature? The author explains it by the following definition, which is, in reality, an abstract of his work:—‘Man is an intelligent being, assisted by organs.’ Of these organs, some act only by the intelligence, or her immediate direction. The assemblage of the phenomena of this kind is termed *active life*. This life, the most essential to man, cannot subsist by itself. The organs require repair, and this is styled *nutritive life*. This constitutes the principal division, in which our readers will see no particular merit; and, indeed, we were never able to perceive on what the high pretensions of M. Bichat to physiological fame were truly founded.

*Recherches Philosophiques, &c. Philosophical Inquiries respecting Life and Death. By Xavier Bichat, Professor of Anatomy and Physiology. 8vo. Paris.*—M. Bichat, who has already distinguished himself as the author of a valuable treatise on the membranes of the human body, professes, in his title, to give new views of the animal economy, and to communicate numerous experiments made on living animals. In fact, he endeavours to combine the experimental plans of Haller and Spalanzani with the philosophic views of Bordeu; and is as averse to accumulate

experiments without arranging them by systematic reasoning, as to rest on reasoning not founded on experience. His definition of life is curious, but conveys no determinate idea. It consists, he says, in all the functions that resist death, and is distinguished into animal and organic life. Each of these is divided into two orders; the first is established on the external sensitive organs in the neighbourhood of the brain; the second on the brain, in the vicinity of the organs of loco-motion and of the voice. In organic life, one order is destined to the assimilation, and the other to the de-assimilation, of the substances that nourish the animal. These definitions are the subjects of the first section of the first book. In the nine other sections, the author treats of the general differences of animal and organic life, with respect to the external form of their respective organs; to the mode as well as the duration of action of the same organs; to habit and to vital powers. The three last articles of the first book treat of the origin and evolution of animal organic life; and of the natural end of each.

The second part treats of death. Natural death is rare; accidental death is either owing to diseases, or comes on suddenly. Every kind of death begins by the heart, the lungs, or the brain. After these general considerations, the author examines what is the influence of the death of the heart, on that of the brain, lungs, and indeed every other organ; as well as on general death. The five other articles, which conclude the work, are destined to examine, in equal extent, the influence of the death of the lungs and of the brain. The experiments are numerous; but they do not repay, by their consequences, the pain they inflict on a feeling mind. M. Bichat's erudition deserves, however, our commendation, as he appears well acquainted with the works of Aristotle and Buffon, of Haller, Bordeu, and Morgagne.

*Institutions de Médecine, &c. Institutions of Medicine, or an Explanation of the Theory and Practice of that Science according to ancient and modern Authors. A didactic Work. By P. H. Petit Radel. 2 Vols. 8vo.*—This is a judicious elementary performance, of which our account needs not be extensive. In the introduction, after displaying the excellence of human nature, and enumerating the more obvious as well as the more recondite phænomena, he shows the necessity of the physician's knowing the human constitution in all its appearances and varieties. He then gives an analytical table of the variations which ages have produced in the doctrine without changing the principles. The first two volumes contain the physiology, and the doctrines of health. The arrangement is simple, clear, and judicious. The second volume contains the pathology and therapeutics. In the former, after the usual subjects, he concludes with a very valuable section on the conversion of diseases into others, including the doctrines of



metastasis, crises, &c. The therapeutics contain nothing which demands particular attention. The report of the commissioners of the faculty of medicine we shall subjoin. 'This work contains all that the student ought to know before he proceeds to read practical works, that will be always obscure if studied without the assistance of preliminary knowledge, which can only be afforded by elementary works, neither too concise nor too extensive.'

*Histoire Médicale de l'Armée de l'Orient, &c. The medical History of the Army of the East. By the Physician in chief, R. Desgenettes. 8vo.*—This is the work of which we have already spoken, and which we hasten to announce, hoping to be able to return to it at greater length. It is a work composed in the tumult of war, but dictated by a most extensive experience, viz. the care of 36,000 men on the banks of the Nile during three years and a half. The first part is the report addressed to the Council of Health by the author. The next part is M. Desgenettes' circular letter to the physicians of the army, to induce them to collect the most important observations, and even to compose particular memoirs. This has already appeared, in what may be styled the Egyptian Transactions, of which a third volume is published. Among these memoirs is an account of the ophthalmia, by Bruant; a topographic description of Menouffe in the Delta, by M. Carrée; remarks on the use of oily frictions in the plague; the observations of Ceresole in a journey from Cairo to Siouth; the philosophical and medical topography of Salehyeh, by Saverisi; that of Belbeys, by Vautin; of Rosetta, by Frank; of Alexandria, by Salze. In the necrologic tables, published in the years VII, VIII, and IX, by our author, we find that this capital contains many more women than men; that, in the early periods of existence, the small-pox is much more fatal than the plague; that the women are prolific; but that the prolific period begins and ends early, and they do not in general live so long as the men, many of whom live to the age of 100 years. Our author confirms many of Prosper Alpinus's remarks, and gives some judicious directions for better accustoming the troops to the climate of hot countries. We have reason to expect further information on this subject from the very humane and intelligent author.

*Avantages d'une Constitution faible, &c. Advantages of a weak Constitution. A medical Sketch. By Fouquier de Maisency. 8vo.*—The title seems to promise something lively or smart; but the work contains only a paradox, defended by a string of sophisms. The idea is, that, in proportion to the weakness of the body, the powers of the mind increase; and that weak people only are capable of great actions. He confounds the nervous sensibility which accompanies taste, and the more refined ex-



ertions, with the power which can rule nations or conduct armies. But we need not reason with a man who can write in the following strain, "Happily, every thing degenerates: in proportion as we become sensual, we are enervated; the soul is aggrandized, the intelligence extended, and the heart softened. Enervated nations are those that possess the greatest genius and humanity—the Romans only became masters of the world when they were most corrupted." In short, the great secret of the perfectibility of man is supposed to consist in his degeneracy—curious doctrine!

*Essai sur l'Histoire générale des Mathématiques, &c. An Essay on the general History of the Mathematics. By Charles Bossat. 2 Vols. 8vo.*—As we have considered at some length Montucla's extensive history, we shall be more concise on this more humble attempt. It is not however without its merit. M. Bossat does not give a general history, but in each part of science examines the leading ideas, with the consequences arising from them. The author traces four periods. The first contains the rise of the science among the Greeks (it should rather have been the Chaldæans and Hinduus) to the destruction of the school of Alexandria. The second comprises their revival among the Arabs, and is continued to the fifteenth century. This age is singularly barren in historical monuments, but the conclusion is remarkable for the progress of navigation, by the assistance of the compass. The third contains the labours of Vieta, Descartes, Gahles, Toncelli, &c. with the systems of Copernicus and Tycho Brahé. The fourth is the age of Leibnitz, Newton, the Bernouillis, Clairant, Euler, and d'Alembert, concluding with the discovery of the infinitesimal analysis. This last is the most splendid period, and the drier discussions are relieved by an examination of the pretensions of different authors to disputed discoveries, the dispute of the Bernouillis on the subject of the isoperimetrical problem; those of Euler, Clairant, &c. on the system of the world, &c. The author promises a discourse on the present state of the mathematics, with which the work will probably conclude.

*Mécanique Philosophique, &c. Philosophical Mechanism, or a technical Analysis of different Parts of the Science of Equilibrium, and of Motion. By R. Prony Bernard.*—The author has compiled this work from the lectures and materials collected for the Polytechnic School, and his object is to revive and connect, in the mind of the student, the instructions which he has received. The work consists of two distinct parts, though they correspond with each other. On one side are the formulæ and definitions, with every thing which may be styled the text; and on the other the explanation of the figures and the notation, a list of the objects defined, and an enunciation of the theorems

and problems contained in the formulæ. The author has pointed out the sources from which he has collected; but many things are his own, either wholly, or in the mode of representing. These are whatever concerns equilibrium; 2. a method of obtaining the fundamental equations of statics, without employing the theory of momenta; 3. a general demonstration, to show that the theorems relating to momenta are only a particular enunciation of the principles of virtual velocities; 4. new formulæ for the pressure and equilibrium of elastic fluids, allowing for the variation of dilatibility; formulæ which may render the theory of the barometer more general and certain, particularly when employed in measuring the heights of mountains; 5. an interesting application of the author's principles (drawn from the theory of imperfect fluids) respecting the pressure of earth when employed in the covering of ramparts. These formulæ are wholly new, and singularly simple. On the whole, this work will reflect the highest credit on the author and on the school where these principles are explained.

## GERMANY.

*Handbuch der Naturlehre, &c. Elements of Philosophy.* By G. G. Schmidt. 1st Part. Giesen.—As usual, we announce first parts of a work. The substance is the Elements of Erleben. But the author has added two new parts, for the sake of those not acquainted with mathematics; and has added to their value by a series of experiments, wholly his own. He treats, in general, of the usual subjects which are comprised in what may be called the mechanical elements, concluding with the chemical properties of the different gases, with the subjects of heat, light, electricity, and magnetism. The second part is designed to contain cosmology, physico-mathematical geography and meteorology.

*Müller J. Vorzüglichste Lingvægel Deutschlands, &c. The principal singing Birds of Germany, described and drawn from Nature, with their Nests and Eggs.* 4to. Nuremberg.—This beautiful collection is now complete; for the fourth and last number, containing seven plates, has just appeared. The whole is comprised in twenty-five plates, which the editors offer to sell, without the text, for twenty-five rix-dollars eight grosch. They are equally beautiful and correct; for they are drawn and coloured from nature, without the assistance of any book. The birds are placed in their natural attitudes, and the brilliant colouring of their plumage is accurately copied. The subjects of the twenty-five plates are, 1. the male and female nightingale, with their nests and eggs; 2. the sparrow; 3. the grey bunting of the Alps; 4. the chattering bunting; 5. the bastard

nightingale; 6. the bullfinch; 7. the canary bird; 8. the chaffinch; 9. the goldfinch; 10. the chaffinch of the Ardennes; 11. the sky-lark; 12. the wood-lark; 13. the pipit or small lark, *alauda trivialis*; 14. the *emberiza citrinella*; 15. the siskin, *fringella spinus*; 16. 17. and 18. *turdus viscivorus*, *musicus* and *merula*, the missel thrush, the song thrush, and the blackbird; 19. *sturnus vulgaris*, the starling; 20. *motacilla erithacus*, the red tail; 21. *M. rubecula*, the red breast; 22. *motacilla modularis*, the hedge sparrow; 23. *motacilla salicaria*, the sedge bird; 24. *motacilla regulus*, the wren; 25. the male and female quail, with their eggs and nests.

*F. Weber Observationes Entomologicae continentes novorum quae condidit Generum Characteras, et nuper detecterum Specierum Descriptiones.* 8vo. Kiel.—In the system of Fabricius many insects were left under the species to which they did not properly belong. The author, a pupil of that naturalist, wishes to repair this inaccuracy by forming some new species, and ascertaining their distinguishing characters. His object was to determine the species, which Fabricius, Illiger, and Latreille, had separated from the Beetles in the *Entomologia Systematica*; secondly, to explain, and fix more determinately, the equivocal genus of *Carabus*, by a description of different species, and their separation into individuals. He has found, in his own collection, many species and varieties not described in the *Entomologia Systematica* of Fabricius, or in other systems; and has pointed out many others described by Olivia, Cramer, and Drury, not described by Fabricius. This has determined him to class them anew, omitting only what are found in the well-known works of Paykull, Illiger, and Kreutzer. The first section of these observations contains either the new or amended species; the second comprises the species recently discovered, and fills the greater part of the volume.

*Ideen zu einer Zoochemie, &c. An Idea of Zoochemistry or chemical Physiology.* By C. W. Fuch. With Additions and Notes by D. J. B. Trommsdorff. Vol. I. 8vo. Erfurt.—Zoochemistry, says the author, has not for its object the analysis of dead animal substances, but should be considered as a part of general philosophy, of which the treatise before us contains the first principles. In the introduction, the author examines the action of matter on living animals, and that of dead animal matter on inanimated bodies. From this he deduces the idea of *force*, which is only the principle, or the possibility of action of matter. The action of the force of dead matter is confined to the production of forms; but the reciprocal action of these forces produces life. This essay fills up a lacuna which we should have remarked in M. Trommsdorff's *Manual of Chemistry*, if we had not had this treatise in our view, which that author by his republication seems to have



adopted. The defect we mean is the omission of the animal chemistry. It is however but imperfectly filled, and proves what we have often seen, that a good chemist may be but an indifferent physiologist. What we have transcribed we must call a jargon, and of the worst kind. We have pledged ourselves to detect infidelity; and this is a scion of the old stock—of a stock as old as our first parents. It assumes a splendid and a specious form, but will not bear a moment's examination. The author's subsequent ideas on heat, light, magnetism, and Galvanism, are not sufficiently new and valuable to detain us.

*Systematisches Handbuch, &c. A Systematic Manual of Chemistry.* By D. J. B. Trommsdorff. Vol. II. 8vo. Erfurt. —We cannot compliment the author, whose labours we have heretofore viewed with approbation, on the success of his design, which was to supply proper views, and even to communicate the practical part of chemistry, to those who wish to teach themselves. For these purposes the present manual is by no means sufficient; but it may be, on the whole, considered as a very useful introduction. The necessary elements are first taught; and we perceive, among the affinities, the 'disposing affinity,' lately introduced by MM. Fourcroy and Vauquelin. Under the article of solution, he distinguishes *combination*, viz. a chemical mixture, from re-union, a change of form, calling the first Dissolution and the second Solution.

The second section treats of the general principles, both simple and compounded, which are universally dispersed; and the author admits of the term Phlogiston less as a real substance than as an expression which serves to point out several phænomena. He will not admit light to be a distinct principle from heat; and, in producing water by the combustion of hydrogen and oxygen gas, has never found it contaminated by an acid.

In the third section, which treats of acids, the author admits the sulphurated hydrogenous gas which Bertholet has lately determined to be an acid. He consequently divides the salts, whose nature is known, into those whose acidity depends on oxygen, and those where it depends on the new acid, which he calls hydrothion. In conformity to modern experiments, the acid of cobalt is classed among the mineral acids; and those of woad, cork, and urine, among the compound acids. He then examines each acid in particular, and establishes the difference between the common muriatic acid and the oxygenated; but allows of no distinction between the acetic and the acetous. Many other acids appear to him also doubtful.

The fourth section treats of alkalies, and the fifth of earths. The alkaline earths, as lime, barytes, and strontian, he classes with the alkalies. Our author was the discoverer of the new earth, called Agustine, because its compounds are tasteless.

In the sixth section M. Trommsdorff examines the relation

of some combustibles to each other, and to acids, alkalies, and earths. In the seventh he treats of metals, whose characters and general relations he explains.

The eighth and ninth sections form the second volume. In the first the author treats of salts; and, in the second, of the constituent principles of the vegetable kingdom.

*Abhandlungen der K. K. Medizinisch-chirurgischen, &c. Memoirs of the Imperial Royal Josephine Academy of Medicine and Surgery at Vienna. Vol. II. 4to.*—The first volume of this collection was published in 1788, and soon after noticed in our Journal. The delay of this volume is ascribed to the members being chiefly employed in the military hospitals, and in the academicians forming a permanent commission of health, with respect to the military hospitals. No apology is made for the disgraceful change of language. Medicine begins to lose the character of a learned science, and is now only a trade. We should also have expected that the occupations of the members would have rendered this volume more instructive and interesting; but find few traits of the extensive experience which the late war must have furnished. The first Memoir, by C. G. Neumann, fills 208 pages, and is published separately. It is on inflammations, and by no means peculiarly new or interesting. The second is on the cataract, and on the iritis, often conspicuous after the operation, by M. Schmidt. The third, on a particular species of lymphatic swelling, and the best method of treating it, by professor Benil. The fourth, on the appearances of diminution of vital force in lymphatic tumours, by Dr. J. A. Schmidt, author of the second article. The fifth, on wounds of the breast, by Dr. G. Vering. The sixth, a new method, confirmed by experience, of treating palsy and spasm of the eye-lids, by Dr. Schmidt. Seventh, observations on the diseases of the garrison during the blockade of Mantua, in 1796 and 1797, by Dr. Stegmayer.

*Siziliens, &c. Medals, and Inscriptions on Stone, of the ancient History of Sicily. By J. H. Keerl. 1st Part. 24 Sheets. 8vo. With 10 Plates. Gotha.*—The ancient medals of Sicily are distinguished by the beauty of their execution, and are so many historical monuments, which display the power of the first inhabitants of Sicily, as well as their progress in the arts; and recall the reigns of many of their princes, with various important events, such as the conquest of Syracuse, the war of the slaves in Italy, &c. Two species of medals are peculiarly distinguishable; viz. those struck under the government of the Romans, and which contain almost all the events of that period; and those struck under that of the Greeks, which generally display the images and the attributes of the divinities, whose worship was established in the different cities. The author of

the Picturesque Travels through Naples and Sicily has given some account of the Sicilian medals, drawn from the best authors; but many important ones are omitted, and some of the ancient cities, whose names are preserved upon coins, are not mentioned. The work is consequently divided into two parts; the first containing the accounts of St. Non, which are often imperfect; the second, the most satisfactory details on the medals and coins of Sicily, extracted from the scarce and valuable work of prince Gabriel Castello Toremuzza, which was published at Palermo 1781, under the following title, *Siciliæ Populorum, et Urbium, Regum quoque et Tyrannorum veteres Nummi, Saracenorum Epocham antecedentes*. The second volume will contain the abstract of another work, equally rare, of the same author, published in 1784, under the title of *Siciliæ et objacentium Insularum veterum Inscriptionum Collectio*.

*Gundriss der neuern, &c. Elements of Modern History of the States of Europe.* By C. D. Voss. 8vo. Halle.—M. Voss, with many other historians, considers the great dispersion of nations as the principal epoch and source of all the succeeding changes. The picture which he draws of the middle ages contains some just views of the spirit of the times, and the influence of this spirit on the successive revolution and formation of the different European constitutions. This general view, with its branches, affords room for very interesting observations, till the character of society is established, about the end of the fifteenth century. The work is completed by adding tables of the history of France, England, Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the German empire, which are wanting in the works of Meusel and Spittler, as the latter authors suppose their readers proficient in modern history.

The history of the sixteenth century is considered at length, and in chronological order. That of the Low Countries required not such ample notice, as they never had, except during a very short period, any preponderating influence on the general system of Europe. The history of the eighteenth century is divided into three periods. The first is from the commencement of the century to the year 1740; the next extends to 1789; and the last to 1800. The first and second are particularly detailed; but the last, and the most important, is comprised in eight pages. Particular reasons may have determined the author not to engage in the labyrinth of the revolution, and the events of which it was the source; but this is at least an important omission. Another deficiency which we have remarked is that of historical literature, which is certainly an essential part of a work designed for public instruction, in order to point out to the students the most useful works.



On the whole, however, this work is truly valuable, and merits a translation.

*Recueil de Plans de Batailles, &c.* *A Collection of the Plans of Battles fought and gained by Bonaparte in Italy and Egypt, with a Relation of his Campaigns. By two Officers, and the Staff Major. 4to. With illuminated Plates.* Leipsic.—At the head of this collection we find an abstract of Bonaparte's military life. The account contains a short narrative of all the actions which happened in Italy, from the battle of Montenotte, in April 1796, to that of Marengo, on the 9th of June 1800 (fatal day!); accompanied with the terms of the armistice concluded with general Melas. The illuminated plates are sixty-seven in number; among which are plans of the battles of the Pyramids, of Cheibresse, and Aboukir.

## HOLLAND.

*Geschiedenis der Landing, &c.* *A History of the Descent of the Anglo-Russian Army in North Holland, with the military and political Events of the Year 1789, both in that Country, in Friezeland and Gueldres, from the most authentic Documents.* By L. C. Vonk. 8vo. Vol. I. Haerlam.—The representations in this volume are, as may be expected, highly honourable to the Batavians; but we find no particular subject of remark that we can enlarge on in this sketch. A work on the same subject has appeared in France, under the title of the Campaign of General Brune. We have seen also the relation of general Daendels; but the most authentic account is still expected from the engineer Krayenhoff.

*Geschiedenis, &c.* *History of the armed Invasion of the Dutch Emigrants in the Department of the Rhine, in September 1799, from the most authentic Accounts.* 8vo. Haerlam.—A work of the same kind, written with the same views. All is heroism, firmness, and wisdom.—It may be so!

## ITALY.

*Introduzione alla Chimica.* *An Introduction to Chemistry.* 8vo. Padua.—The author of this introduction is count Nicolo del Rio; and it is so clear and simple, that it appears peculiarly adapted for an elementary system.

*Roma Antica, &c.* *Rome, ancient and modern.* By the Abbé Guattans. With Plates. 4 Vols. 4to. Bologna.—The author has already shown, by his publications on the antiquities of Rome, which appeared from 1784 to 1789, that he was able to give a more complete and satisfactory description of the

Roman remains than any of his predecessors: he has amply fulfilled all our expectations: his remarks are new; and he joins an exquisite taste in the works of art to uncommon penetration, and a vast as well as profound erudition.

*Series Monetæ Romana universæ, &c.* 4to. Venice.—This little tract will be interesting to all the lovers of the numismatic science. It contains a complete series, divided into eight epochs, of consular and imperial coins, current in Italy, from the foundation of Rome to the fall of the Roman and Greek empire. The order proposed by Ekhel is followed for the division of the classes. This arrangement is peculiarly clear and exact, and will be an excellent guide to those who wish to arrange a cabinet of medals.

*Opere in Versi e in Prosa, &c.* *The Works, in Verse and Prose, of Count Gaspero Gozzi, a Venetian.* 8 Vols. 8vo. Venice.—We are indebted for this edition to the care of the abbé Angelo Dalmistro, one of the author's most zealous admirers—anxious to rescue his fame from the insinuations of those who have mistaken his merits. For this purpose, he has prefixed the life of count Gozzi in a strain of studied panegyric, and claims for him the admiration of future ages. At the end of this *éloge* we find fifteen epistles in verse (*sermões*), on various subjects of taste, literature, and morality. A poem in four cantos follows, entitled *The Triumph of Humility*: various poems of the lyric kind, with translations of the first part of the third satire of Persius, and of the second epistle of the first book of Horace. The second volume contains also miscellaneous poetry; and the three following, with a part of the sixth volume, are filled with a periodical work entitled '*Osservatore*,' in the manner of the *Spectator*; of which two sheets were published weekly. This was, at the time, a novelty in Italy. The remainder of the sixth volume is filled with commentaries on each canto of Dante's poems, followed by an apology for that poet, in answer to some criticisms sent, under the assumed name of Virgil, to the academy of the Arcadians. Gozzi assumes the name of Doni, and writes from the Elysian fields. This is followed by a translation of Pope's *Essay on Criticism*. The seventh and part of the eighth volume contain a philosophic romance, under the title of the '*Moral World*;' and the author introduces some fine passages from the *Dialogues of Lucian* and Klopstock's *Death of Adam*. The remainder contains a translation of the *Picture of Cebes*, and some miscellaneous poems.

## SPAIN.

*Teatro nuevo Español. New Spanish Theatre. 3 Vols. 8vo.* Madrid.—These volumes contain many pieces imitated from Molière and Destouches. Even some of Kotzebue's are inserted—an author pretty severely treated by the Spanish critics. One of the most interesting pieces—The Virago—contains some pointed remarks against the sentimental comedies, particularly of the French theatre.

## PORTUGAL.

*Memorias, &c. Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Lisbon. 2 Vols. 4to.* From the Press of the Academy.—The Royal Academy of Lisbon has divided its Memoirs into three classes; those of mathematics and philosophy, of œconomy, and belles lettres. The two latter are published in octavo, the first in quarto. But of the first only shall we, at present, give an account.

1. A general solution of Kepler's problem on gauging. 2 and 3. Domin. Vandelli Floræ et Faunæ Lusitanicæ specimen; et de Vulcano Olissiponensi, et montis erminis. The author has discovered seventeen kinds of volcanic productions in the environs of Lisbon. 4. On the attractive force of the magnet, by J. A. Dalla Bella, who has found that the attractive force between two magnets is in the inverse ratio of the square of their distance. 5. Of the true principles of the differential calculus, by F. D. B. G. Stokler. This memoir has been printed separately. 6. An addition to the rule of Fontaine for the resolution of problems by approximation, by J. Monteiro da Rocha. 7. Observations made at the Royal College of Mafra in 1785, by D. J. de A Velho, on the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites. 8. History of the legislation and manners of Portugal, by A. C. da Amaral. 9. Different observations in natural history and chemistry, by D. Vandelli. 10. Observations on a vegetable hygrometer, by Barbosa. He employed the geranium moschatum and malachoides. 11. Philosophic observations on six thunder storms, which, within a few years, have struck the royal palace near the city of Mafra. 12. Of the longitude and latitude of Lisbon, according to the method of P. Hell, by C. G. de Villas Boas. The latitude of the college dos Nobres is  $38^{\circ} 42' 52''$ , and its longitude  $45^{\circ} 36''$ . 13. Astronomical observations made at the fort of the city of Rio Janeiro, to determine its latitude and longitude, by B. S. Dorta. 14. Meteorological observations at the same place, by the same. 15. On the uncertainty of the origin of gum myrrh,



by J. de Loureiro. 16. On the bucolic poetry of the Portuguese, by I. de Foyos. 17. On the nature and origin of aloës, by Loureiro. 18. Astronomical observations at the royal press of the college dos Nobres, by F. A. Ciera. 19. Meteorological observations made at Mafra in 1783, by Velho. 20. On Fontaine's method of approximation, by de Maia. 21. Observations on the eclipse of the sun, October 17, 1781, by Cerati. 22. Observations made at Rio Janeiro, in 1782, on the satellites of Jupiter and eclipses of the moon, by Barbosa. 23. An historical *éloge* of D'Alembert, by Stokler.

The memoirs in the second volume are,—1. A demonstration of Newton's principle respecting the power of the roots of an equation, by Stokler. 2. On a petrified animal, by Loureiro. 3, 4, and 5. Philosophic and historic inquiries on the different races of mankind; botanical description of cubebs; physical and botanical reflexions on the plant *aërides*, which arises and vegetates in the air, by the same. 6. An account of the different kinds of bees, indigenous in Brazil, and unknown in Europe. 7. Meteorological observations made at Mafra, in 1785 and 6, by Velho. 8. On reflecting telescopes, by J. M. Dantas Pereira. 9. Successive additions of many different series, by Pereira. 10. Description of a human monster, by Dorta. 11. Astronomical observations at St. Paul, by Dorta. 12. On the differential functions, by Stokler. 13. Description of a monstrous human fetus, by F. Tararez. 14. Loxometry of human life, or, concerning the progress of human life during its present existence, by Soares de Barros. 15. Memoir on navigation, by Manuel de Espirito Santo Limpo. 16. Astronomical observations at Rio Janeiro in 1784, 1785, by Dorta. 17. Determination of the orbits of comets, by Monteiro da Rocha. 18. Of some properties of co-efficients, by Stokler. 19. Two eclipses of the moon, observed by Velho, at Mafra, in 1783 and 1787. 20. Astronomical observations in the year 1790, by count de Villas Boas. The appendix contains three medical memoirs, observations of eclipses at Pekin and Rome, with astronomical observations at St. Paul, by Barbosa.

## AMERICA.

*Opere di Nicola Machiavelli. Works of N. Machiavelli. 6 Vols. 8vo.* Philadelphia.—It is singular to meet with an improved edition of an Italian work from the press of the United States. An *éloge* of Machiavel, by Baldelli, is prefixed; and, besides the usual works, this edition contains the following, some of which, at least, have been hitherto inedited.

'Dell' Ira e dei Modi di curarla.' This was an early piece of the author, supposed by the editor to have been written

about 1504. It contains some striking and just remarks on the motives of human actions.

‘Descrizione della Peste.’ This epidemic desolated Tuscany, and particularly Florence, in the years 1522 and 1527, and is said to have destroyed 20,000 people. It has been mentioned by Varchi, and many contemporary authors, whose manuscripts are still preserved in libraries; but no one has given so full an account of it as Machiavel. The editor is mistaken in thinking this piece hitherto unpublished.

‘Instruzione a Rafaello Girolami.’ These instructions were written when Raphaël went to Spain, to the court of the emperor. This piece shows a political and enlightened mind, with proper views to conduct men to the objects they wish to attain.

‘Capitoli per una Compagnia di Piacere.’ A little local piece, which appears wholly uninteresting at this time.

‘Allocuzione fatta ad un Magistrato.’ In this harangue, the author recommends justice with the eloquence of Cicero, and the fervor of Demosthenes.

‘Commedia in Versi.’ A piece without a title, whose sole merit consists in its style.

‘La Mente d’ un Huomo di Stato.’ A collection of maxims and sentences, taken from the works of Machiavel, by the editor.

Due Testamenti Latini. One of these is dated Nov. 22, 1511, and the other Nov. 27, 1522.

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☞ *WE greatly regret that accidental circumstances have again prevented us from offering any review of MAPS and CHARTS in the present Appendix. This department will, however, be still continued; and the circumstances which have occasioned the omission, will, we trust, have the effect of rendering it more copious and important in future.*







# HALL-PLACE SCHOOL, KENT,

SEPTEMBER 17, 1802.

*The annual Course of Lectures on "The Principles of Trade and Commerce, and on British Commerce in particular," will RECOMMENCE on the 20th of October; at Seven in the Evening; and that on "The English Constitution, on Government and History," will BEGIN at the same Hour, on the 21st of October:---They will be given alternately, EVERY EVENING, till both Courses are completed.---N. B. For Terms and further Particulars, &c. apply to MR. TREPPASS, Bookseller, St. Martin's-le-Grand.*

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**I**T appears somewhat extraordinary that in a country which has extended its commerce so wonderfully as England has done, although there are several excellent schools near London, which are well suited to prepare the commercial Youth of this Kingdom for the counting-house and the respective lines of common business, yet the Merchant is often at a loss to know where to place his son from the age of fourteen to seventeen; so that, without going to the large public school, or becoming a member of either of the Universities, he may, during that period, in ADDITION to the USUAL instructions, be acquiring also, those elements, or principles, of commercial and general science, which may enable him, in future life, not only to distinguish himself in any of the extended branches of commerce; but in the elevated stations of the India-House, or in the British Senate; or, in one word, enable him to support, with dignity, the important character of the NATIONAL MERCHANT.

It is an ancient maxim, "That Trade ought not to govern Politics, but to be governed by them; Polity being to be looked upon as the Father of a State; and Trade and Agriculture, as the Nurse and Mother."---It is an observation equally true, that to promote, as far as possible, the glory and interest of Great Britain, and its utmost advancement in trade, the Mercantile should always be made consistent with, and united to, the National Interest. It is also evident, that to understand the TRUE National Interests of Great Britain, Polity, and the Principles of Government, should FIRST be the objects of study. From hence, then, originates the NECESSITY of teaching the commercial Youth of this Country, the Principles of Government, the Science of Trade, &c. &c. &c. It is, therefore, intended, when the studies of the day are over, to give, each evening, the Lectures already mentioned, to such pupils as are fourteen years of age; the whole will be selected from authors of the first eminence, agreeably to a plan, long adopted in private Tuition, with success.

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London: Printed by J. Boswell, 17, Duke's Court, Drury Lane

# HALL-PIPER SCHOOL, KENT

REPORT FOR 1901-1902

The Board of Directors of the Hall-Piper School, Kent, has the honor to acknowledge the receipt of the report of the Superintendent, Mr. J. H. Piper, for the year ending June 30, 1902. The report shows a steady increase in the number of pupils, and a high standard of scholarship. The school has been successful in its efforts to provide a thorough education for all its pupils, and to develop their individual talents. The Board is proud of the achievements of the school, and is confident that the future holds many more successes for this fine institution.

The following table shows the enrollment of the school for the year ending June 30, 1902:

Grade	Enrollment
First	12
Second	15
Third	18
Fourth	20
Fifth	22
Sixth	25
Seventh	28
Eighth	30
Ninth	32
Tenth	35
Eleventh	38
Twelfth	40
Total	288

The following table shows the distribution of the pupils by sex and race:

Sex	Race	Enrollment
Male	White	150
Male	Colored	10
Female	White	120
Female	Colored	8
Total	White	270
Total	Colored	18
Total	All Races	288



# PROSPECTUS

## OF A NEW MAGAZINE,

ENTITLED

### *THE GENTLEMAN'S* MONTHLY MISCELLANY;

TO BE PUBLISHED ON THE FIRST OF JANUARY, 1803,

AND ON THE FIRST OF EVERY FOLLOWING MONTH.

BY

A SOCIETY OF LITERARY GENTLEMEN.

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**T**HE Liberty of the Press is a subject of much dispute between political theorists:—one party desirous that its abuses only should be restrained, and that unlimited scope should be equally given to speculations on the works of nature and the whole course of human affairs;—another pretending to dread its interference in political transactions, and precluding the multitude from all concern with regulations of the state, other than to obey them. The constitution of our country, by steering between the two extremes, has happily placed every writer in more desirable circumstances than in most parts of the world; and, allowing free course to his thoughts, subjects him to the decision of a jury, whenever he is supposed to act injuriously against his neighbour or the state. But, if the liberty of the press be thus wisely provided for, other causes may interfere with the benefits it might procure for mankind; and we cannot but lament, that even among ourselves the necessities of the state compel it to

have recourse to a mode of taxation which precludes a great portion of the people from a knowledge of the improvements in arts and sciences, communicated through the means of the press. The price of books locks up the treasures they contain from a large and respectable class of society, for which the Editor of the GENTLEMAN'S MONTHLY MISCELLANY proposes, though not exclusively, to write; and he flatters himself that, under certain regulations, he shall be enabled to provide them at a moderate price with amusement and profitable instruction.

For this purpose it is proposed that the Gentleman's Monthly Miscellany—to be published on the first day of January 1803, and on the first day of every ensuing month—shall contain *Three Sheets*, neatly printed, at the moderate price of *Eight-pence*.

The Contents of the Work will be, as the title implies, *miscellaneous*, comprehending Original Correspondence on Philosophy, Biography, History, Politics, Medicine, Morality, Agriculture, Botany, Mathematics, and every other subject that may be either useful or entertaining; Poetry, Mathematical Questions, Intelligence in Literature and Philosophy; Account of Patents, View of Public Affairs at home and abroad, State Papers, Notice of Improvements in Arts and Science, of Public Amusements, of Provincial Occurrences, of Births, Marriages, Deaths, &c. &c.; Reports of Agriculture, of Commerce, of Gardening; with Prices at Markets, Prices of the Public Funds, &c. &c.

As the work is intended for the general reader, it naturally follows that abstruse discussions on science,

criticisms on ancient languages, questions in law and medicine—intelligible only to professional men—will be excluded; but the greatest attention will be paid to articles which tend to the government of the passions, the regulation of the heart, the promotion of virtue, the advancement of beneficial discoveries, and the encouragement of benevolent and liberal sentiments.

We have observed, that the constitution of this country has wisely provided that the writer should be left to his own discretion in the publication of his thoughts, resigning every impropriety to the interference of a jury: yet there is an art of conveying offensive sentiments, injurious to individuals, both public and private, in such a manner as to leave the sting, and yet avoid the lash of the law. This art we entirely disclaim; and shall not permit any thing to escape from our pens, which can, in the judgment of even partial men, be construed into an affront of individuals, public or private; and this law, which we lay down for ourselves with respect to our own countrymen, we shall as rigidly observe with regard to foreigners.

It is needless for us to observe, that nothing of indecent tendency shall be allowed a place in our miscellany; we will not permit it to be the vehicle of those advertisements which shock the eye of delicacy, nor shall a sentence escape us that the most rigid father would expunge from the sight of his family.

The public will from this Prospectus conceive the spirit of our intended publication;—that it proposes to communicate general instruction and amusement; to be entirely



subservient to good morals and true religion; and to diffuse as widely as possible the love of our country, of our friends, of our enemies, and of all mankind. In the execution of our plan we look forward with confidence to the approbation and patronage of all good men: and we request those who may be disposed to assist us by becoming Subscribers to give early notice to their Booksellers or Newsmen of their intention, as it is only by an extensive circulation that the public can receive the various benefits proposed by the present undertaking. The Proprietors pledge themselves to spare neither pains nor expense to render it deserving of public encouragement.

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**\*\*** Correspondents who are inclined to favour us with their Communications are requested to forward them, *post-paid*, to C. WOOD, No. 18, Poppin's-Court, Fleet-Street, by whom it will be published.—To be sold by all Booksellers and Newsmen in the United Kingdom.

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† As it may be imagined, from the size of the Volumes above-mentioned, that  
they contain only an *Abridged Translation*, it is necessary to state, that they  
comprise the whole of the Original Work, which is sold in London at the  
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tended to be spoken by DENON to the National Institute, illustrative of the ob-  
ject of his Journey, &c.

Printed by B. M<sup>l</sup>Millan, }  
Bow-Street, Covent-Garden. }

## TO THE PUBLIC.

"Omne tulit punctum, qui miscuit utile dulci." HOR.

IF the opinion of Horace, that the man who has succeeded in a combination of the useful with the agreeable, has carried every point, be correct, the Editor of the present Publication has every thing to hope, and nothing to fear. But though confident, he would not be thought assuming; he would not wish to obtrude his labours on the Public, without assigning "their motive and their end."

The principal subject of complaint against the most reputable Travellers has been, that each having had a predilection for a specific object, or branch of study, has paid too strict a degree of attention to that branch in particular; but whatever may have been the primary object of the Traveller, whether his attention have been directed to physiological investigation or antiquarian research; to the examination of the vegetable kingdom, to the scrutiny of mineral wonders, or to nautical illustration, his performance must be the result of labour and reflection, and his liberal exertions are equally deserving of public approbation and encouragement. It is universally admitted, that no books are so completely calculated to afford instruction and entertainment, from the magnitude of the objects they embrace, as those of Travels in distant climates; for by the perusal of their general contents, independently of the portion devoted to scientific inquiries, a contrast is formed with the habits and customs of our native land; and thus the juvenile mind, instead of becoming contracted and prejudiced, is accustomed to reflect with advantage on the different shades of human nature, and to reconcile its manners in various parts of the world. So firmly, indeed, have men of learning been impressed with this opinion, that they have frequently insisted on the utility of all Books of Travels, however inadequate their Authors may have been to the task of observing Nature. How much superior then must be those works, which have not only excited an interest in the country where they were first submitted to public inspection, but have been deemed worthy of being translated into almost every language, and dispersed throughout every country, in Europe!

The importance, therefore, of Voyages and Travels, on the veracity of which reliance may be placed, and their vast utility to the rising generation, as well as to society at large, are so obvious, that any farther remarks in support of them would not only be superfluous, but impertinent.

But notwithstanding the immense advantages resulting from productions of this nature, there have hitherto been certain obstacles to the propagation of their contents, which might justly have been considered insurmountable. The abolition of such impediments to real knowledge, we boldly and unequivocally assert, will be effected by the publication of the present Edition; and hence we have every reason to hope that it will form a desideratum in British Literature.



The consequence of Travellers having too far extended their remarks on particular subjects or branches of science has been, that they have sometimes found it necessary to curtail the general information which might have been expected; or if they have inserted the latter, the size of the volume has been so far extended, as to render its publication at a moderate expence utterly impracticable. On the other hand, the publishing of works of real merit on a large scale, and attended with overstrained embellishments of the graphic and typographic arts, has been the means of introducing such editions to splendid and expensive libraries only; while the enormous price of the volumes renders them unattainable by the most numerous part of society. On this subject, the public complaint has been appropriately expressed in the words of Juvenal:

*" Scire volunt omnes, mercedem solveré nemo."*

To remedy this most serious inconvenience, the Editor has thought, that by printing his Edition in all the beauty of Typography, together with the convenience of portability, and also by condensing, in a very few instances only, such matter in the Original Works as may be conceived generally uninteresting, he should be enabled to publish, in a regular Series of Volumes, a complete and extensive Collection of FACTS AND OBSERVATIONS, adapted to the present state of Literature and Science; a Collection which, while it is calculated for the information of the Nation at large, will not discredit the patronage of Princes; for, by a strict attention to the double object of elegance and economy, he will be able to present the most superb works that have been published in every European language, at a price which can neither be felt nor regretted by any enlightened individual, whatever may be his rank in society.

It may here be necessary to give the following outline of

### CONDITIONS:

- I. This Work will be printed in the Octo-decimo, or Pocket-size, containing thirty-six pages in a sheet, with a New Type, and on a fine woven Paper.
- II. A Volume, containing, on an average, not less than Ten Sheets, and not unfrequently Twelve and upwards, will be published on the first day of every Month.
- III. With every Volume, but particularly with such as have been translated from any foreign language, the most interesting Plates will be given which have appeared in the original works; such Plates being re-engraved expressly for this Edition, by the most celebrated Artists in the metropolis.
- IV. The Work of every respective Traveller will be completed at the end of a Volume of this Edition; so that the Public will have the desirable privilege of purchasing those Volumes which they may be inclined to prefer, without being necessitated to continue the Series. (This Condition is illustrated by the Translation of DENON, which will form a complete Work, in two Pocket-Volumes.)

V. The utility of accurate Maps, to elucidate the different routes through countries in a great degree unknown, is too obvious to require the smallest comment. Hence, whenever any of an authentic kind may be contained in the larger Works, they will regularly be given in this Edition.

VI. Each Volume, printed in the manner above specified, will be sold, at an average, at the very moderate price of 5s.; an additional charge being added only when rendered necessary by the increased size of the Volume, or by an extraordinary number of Plates and Embellishments; and where no subjects are afforded for the latter, the deficiency will be supplied by an additional quantity of Letter-press.

A few copies printed on a superfine Royal Paper, Hot-pressed, with Proof and Coloured Impressions of the Plates, will be worked off, for the accommodation of Amateurs of elegant Typography and Embellishments.

It is but justice to add, that although the most splendid and extensive Works ever published in the United Kingdom will ultimately be comprised in this Undertaking, yet it is by no means the intention of the Editor to confine himself to this object alone. Every edition of Travels of acknowledged merit which may henceforth be published on the Continent, will be translated expressly for this Series. With this view, the Editor has now in a state of forwardness, a Translation of the TRAVELS OF PROFESSOR PALLAS IN THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE; which, together with Translations of several important Editions now preparing for the Press, under the inspection of the French National Institute, will speedily be given; and he is happy in being enabled to state, that such arrangements have been made, as cannot fail to ensure priority in the receipt of the Original Publications.

At the conclusion of each Work, will be added correct and ample Alphabetical Indexes, illustrative of the various subjects contained in the Volumes. Hence, by an assiduous attention to all the above-mentioned points, it is confidently hoped that the present Series will form THE MOST IMPORTANT AND PERFECT COLLECTION OF MODERN VOYAGES AND TRAVELS EVER PUBLISHED IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

\* \* On the 1st of December will be published, ornamented with many superb Engravings, Vignettes, &c. Volume I. of PALLAS'S LAST TRAVELS, PERFORMED IN THE YEARS 1793 and 1794, IN THE SOUTHERN PROVINCES OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE, translated by Mr. BLAGDON from the original German Edition, lately published on the Continent.—Volume II. will be published on the 1st of January, Volume III. on the 1st of February, and Volume IV. and last, on the 1st of March, 1803.

N. B. No other *complete* Edition of this Work can be purchased for less than Six Guineas!

Printed by B. M'Millan, }  
Bow-Street, Covent-Garden. }

# November State-Lottery.

25,000 Pounds for the First-drawn Ticket.

25,000 Pounds for Ditto the Fourth Day.

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10,000	Ditto	3d Day.		5,000	Ditto	7th Day.
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The Drawing will commence on Monday,  
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Tickets and Shares are on Sale by

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STOCK-BROKERS,

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The Corner of BANK-BUILDINGS, CORNHILL, and  
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TICKETS and SHARES Registered, at Sixpence each, to send the earliest Intelligence of their Success. — Letters (Post-Paid) duly answered,



Twenty-Ninth of  
**NOVEMBER, 1802,**  
*The State-Lottery commences Drawing.*

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HALF, FOURTH, EIGHTH, AND SIXTEENTH, SHARES,

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**RICHARDSON, GOODLUCK, & Co.**

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The ONLY Persons

That ever sold, in SHARES,

Two Prizes of Thirty Thousand Pounds

STATE-LOTTERY, 1799,

26,883 A First-drawn Ticket, In a Half, a Fourth, & Two Eighth Shares £30,018

12,807 — LOTTERY, 1791, — 30,000  
 — In Sixteen Sixteenths — —

And, in the PRESENT Year,

Three Prizes of  
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48,318 — A Whole Ticket — £20,000

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 Two Eighth, and Four 16th Shares 20,000

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Also a very large Amount of CAPITAL PRIZES, in the last and former Lotteries,  
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Government-Securies, of all Kinds, bought and sold by Commission.

[December 1, 1802.]

# PROSPECTUS

OF A NEW EDITION OF

## SHAKSPEARE'S PLAYS,

[Printed from the Text of the Corrected Edition left by the  
late Mr. STEEVENS, and now in the Press.]

WITH A SERIES

OF ELEGANT COPPERPLATE ENGRAVINGS,

FROM ORIGINAL DESIGNS;

BY

HENRY FUSELI, ESQ. R. A.

PROFESSOR OF PAINTING.

AND

A SELECTION OF EXPLANATORY AND HISTORICAL NOTES,

FROM THE MOST EMINENT COMMENTATORS;

A HISTORY OF THE STAGE, A LIFE OF SHAKSPEARE, &c.

BY

ALEXANDER CHALMERS, A. M.

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LONDON:

PRINTED FOR F. AND C. RIVINGTON, NO. 62, ST. PAUL'S  
CHURCH-YARD;

J. Johnson, R. Baldwin, H. L. Gardner, W. J. and J. Richardson, J. Nichols  
and Son, T. Payne, R. Faulder, G. and J. Robinson, W. Lowndes, G.  
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Highley, T. Hurst, J. Harding, R. H. Evans, J. Mawman, Black and Parry,  
and J. Sharpe.

C. Baldwin, Printer,  
New Bridge-street, London,

## CONDITIONS.

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1. It is proposed to publish this work in numbers, each number to contain ONE PLAY, and an ENGRAVING: and the whole to be comprised in about THIRTY-EIGHT, but not exceeding FORTY NUMBERS, making EIGHT VOLUMES, OCTAVO.
2. The First Number, containing the TEMPEST, will be published on the First of January 1803; and the succeeding numbers every fortnight.
3. At the close of the work will be given A LIFE of SHAKSPEARE; to which will be prefixed a FINELY engraved Head, Dr. JOHNSON's celebrated PREFACE, &c.
4. The work will be printed upon an ELEGANT NEW TYPE, and SUPERFINE WOVEN DEMY paper, at TWO SHILLINGS each number.—A superior edition will be printed on an EXTRA ROYAL woven paper, hot-pressed, with first impressions of the plates, and sold at FOUR SHILLINGS each number.
5. It is presumed that this Edition being undertaken by the PROPRIETORS of JOHNSON and STEEVENS' SHAKSPEARE, will be an acceptable pledge to the publick for the accuracy of its contents, and the certainty of its completion. It will also have the peculiar advantage of being printed from the Text of the CORRECTED COPY left by the late Mr. STEEVENS, now printing, and which will shortly be published, by the PROPRIETORS of this EDITION, in TWENTY-ONE volumes, medium octavo.



## ADDRESS.

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**N**OTWITHSTANDING the variety of editions' of SHAKSPEARE which have of late years been presented to the Public, and which have their respective merits, it has been thought that one upon the plan now offered would be highly acceptable to a great proportion of readers, without attempting to injure, or being liable to suffer by comparison.

While it is universally acknowledged that the voluminous edition of JOHNSON and STEEVENS affords a mass of information which seems to preclude all future labours, it cannot be denied that from the necessary circumstances of size and price, it is restricted in its circulation, and therefore limited in its utility. However copious in critical illustration, and fertile in authorities and references, such amplitude of comment, and such extension of inquiry, seem fitted rather to the congenial spirit of learned research, than to the more moderate expectations of the general reader.

Influenced by these considerations, the Proprietors have been induced to offer to the public an edition of our immortal Bard, illustrated by a SELECTION of the most IMPORTANT and INTERESTING NOTES which the labours of the various commentators have accumulated. In forming this SELECTION, the object will be to separate the conjectural from the decisive explanations and amendments, to leave the reader under no difficulty which investigation has removed, and to furnish every information that is necessary to a knowledge of the text, or of the history of the play.

Whatever regards questions of taste or emendation, will be retained, but the prescribed limits of an edition strictly useful, and easy to be consulted, in which what is wanted may be found without effort, and comprehended without study, must necessarily exclude the elaborate contests of critics, and the prolix quotations from authorities in support of their opinions. These, although useful for occasional reference, and honourable to the industry and judgment of the gentlemen who have devoted their time to the

purification of the text, are obstructions in the way of the general reader, until they can be brought to a decision which may in few words convey some useful information.

The proposed **SELECTION**, therefore, may, it is hoped, be made without derogating from the praise so justly due to the abilities and zeal of our commentators; and without lessening the reverence by which they were led to bestow so much pains on the works of an author who cannot be celebrated beyond reason, nor blamed without respect. It is honourable to the nation which gave him birth, that it has encouraged every **LEGITIMATE** and **ACCURATE** transmission of his works; and has patronized the most splendid forms in which they have been conveyed to posterity.

The **TEXT** of the present Edition will be that of the **CORRECTED COPY** left by the late Mr. **STEEVENS**, and now printing by the same Proprietors in twenty-one volumes medium octavo; and which, by repeated collations, and every mode of critical investigation, has been made to approach the nearest to its original state. It appears, indeed, from the many alterations and improvements in Mr. Steevens's corrected copy, to be now fixed beyond the hope, or at least the probability, that any future discoveries will be able to add much to its purity. The obscurities, however, which yet remain, and the doubts which have not yet been resolved, will be stated in the notes to prevent the reader from being ashamed of not understanding what the profoundest **CRITICS** have hitherto been unable to explain.

With these advantages of the present edition will be combined, besides the attractions of type and paper, the superior embellishments of a series of engravings from original drawings made by Mr. **FUSELI**, an artist who, with a critical knowledge of the text, has been justly celebrated for that originality of conception, and those bold and wild graces which seem best calculated to illustrate the various imagery and magic combinations of **SHAKSPEARE**.

PROSPECTUS  
OF  
*A NEW WEEKLY PUBLICATION,*  
ENTITLED  
THE LITERARY JOURNAL.

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PERIODICAL Publications are among the most powerful agents in the rapid and universal diffusion of knowledge,—and in a busy and luxurious nation, the utility of this mode of communicating information is peculiarly great. The occupations of one part of the community, and the pleasures of the other, leave them little time or inclination for the business of instruction, and the perusal of a volume appears frequently both too tedious, and too laborious an operation. It is fortunate however, that in a cultivated age, hardly any one is so degenerate and sordid as to have no desire of information, and no gratification from the productions of Taste. To this disposition and situation, it is obvious that periodical publications are eminently adapted; the taste for them has been very great in this country, and it is not, perhaps, easy to calculate the advantages which Great Britain has derived from the performances of this kind which she has produced. In a nation of business, it must be of the utmost consequence, to mix the pursuits of gain with the more elegant pursuits of Literature; and if the great traders of Britain, and especially of her capital, are distinguished for a noble generosity and liberality of mind, it is probably to be ascribed to no cause so much as to that taste for reading, and that love of instruction, with which their education has generally imbued them.

The persons who present this Prospectus to the World have long been of opinion, that a publication devoted to the dissemination of liberal and useful knowledge, on a more comprehensive plan than any which has yet appeared in this country, would, if rightly executed, be a work of great utility. Our literary journals are confined either to the account of books, or to the publication of scientific papers, and include a very small part of the numerous branches of instruction. One very important object, the rapid communication of New Discoveries in the Arts and Sciences, has hitherto been most unaccountably overlooked in the periodical prints of Great Britain; an omission, by which not only the delay of all the advantages to be gained from such discoveries is incurred, but other nations have an opportunity of appropriating to themselves the merit of discoveries which, in fact, do not belong to them; and this country is deprived of the reputation which it deserves.



The intention of the Publication here proposed, is to concentrate the objects of our different periodical works, and to form if possible, a plan extensive enough to include all the important subjects, upon which the publick look for information in periodical performances. These subjects, it appears to the projectors of this work, naturally fall into three grand classes; 1st. LITERATURE, 2d. MANNERS, 3d. POLITICS. As the subject of Literature, however, is very extensive, they are of opinion that it may be more commodiously treated if divided into two parts; the one of which shall comprehend Physical science, and all the branches of knowledge connected with it; the other all the remaining departments of Literature. In conformity to this idea, the work will be arranged in the four following divisions, 1st. Physics, 2d. Literature, 3d. Manners, 4th. Politics. These terms do not express what is meant so perfectly as could be wished, but they will be rendered clear and precise by the developement which follows:—

### PLAN.

I. Under the head PHYSICS, Mechanical Philosophy, Chemistry, Medicine, Mathematics, and Natural History are included. These in their subordinate branches of Astronomy, the Theory of Machines, Optics, Electricity, Galvanism, Chemical Compositions, and Decompositions, Meteorology, Anatomy, Physiology, Navigation, Fortification, Botany, Mineralogy, and the History of Animated Nature, afford a multitude of topics, which may with great pleasure and advantage be communicated in a periodical work. The application too of these sciences to the explanation and improvement of Agriculture, of the Arts, and Manufactures, is a curious, though hitherto very imperfectly explored region of knowledge. Another leading object of this article is to form a complete register of the discoveries made in every part of the world, and to publish them with the greatest possible despatch. A list of all the Books deserving notice, which appear on any of the subjects belonging to this head, will be included, with a statement of the addition which each of them has made to our stock of knowledge; and an Analysis will be given of all such as are of particular importance. Biographical Sketches too of the persons who have distinguished themselves in Physical Science, form a part of the plan of this division. Original papers will occasionally be introduced; and the publishers of this work have reason to think that intimations of discoveries from the Authors of them, will not unfrequently form part of the information which they shall be able to communicate to their readers.

II. The subjects belonging to the second head, entitled, for want of a better term, LITERATURE, are Theology, the Philosophy of Mind, Moral Philosophy, History, Biography, Geography, Chronology, Travels, Criticism, Poetry, &c. The Analysis and Criticism of Books will necessarily form a considerable part of this article. Reviewing of books, however, not being the sole object, even of one department of this Work, it is not intended by the publishers, as in a performance dedicated to that purpose alone, to notice every literary production; this would condemn them to a dry register of titles with power to add nothing, or next to nothing, concerning the merit or contents of the different pieces. They are of opinion that there is a department of criticism, not yet occupied, but not less interesting than those which are; that is, to select with judgment in each branch of literature those new publications, which are best calculated to exhibit the strain and character of the publications in that department, to analyse and investigate completely the specimens

which are chosen, and thus to present what may be termed the spirit of the Criticism and Literature of the times.—The history of Literature, Discourses on its present character, original essays in its various departments, and whatever comes under the title Literary News, or the subjects of conversation in literary parties, and clubs, will naturally be introduced in the same place.

III. MANNERS are a subject, which has for some time been abandoned, as entirely exhausted; although, till the taste of mankind in this respect shall be perfect, it should seem useful to correct it by perpetual criticism. The third department of the Literary Journal is intended to present a picture of the habits and customs of life, prevalent in the various classes of the community, accompanied with such remarks as may tend to improve the present system, as it concerns either virtue or elegance. In this subject is included the consideration of the taste of the times in the rules of social intercourse, in the fine arts, in public amusements, in reading, &c. Comparisons too of the past and present manners of our country, of the manners of our own and other countries, and of those of the ancient and modern nations, form part of the numerous topics belonging to this head; and from the interesting nature of the subject, and the gaiety, and humour with which it admits, and even requires to be treated, it is hoped that this will prove a very attractive, as well as useful article of the publication. It is of some consequence, to open to men of the world, and to men of taste and wit, a channel through which to convey their remarks; and the publishers know that there are not a few persons of this description who will be obliged to them for the opportunity here afforded.

IV. Under the title, POLITICS, the publishers do not mean to include the historical detail of the daily transactions; this is sufficiently performed by the News-papers, and to those vehicles they leave the task. The subjects which they mean to compose this last article are such as the following: General Views of Politics both at home and abroad; accounts of the different Political Parties which prevail there; Strictures on the different Political Creeds which divide Men's Minds; and Characters of the great Political Leaders in all parts of the world. The General Principles of Political Economy, and the Commerce, Agriculture, and Manufactures of our own and other Countries, as far as they are subjects of political regulation, belong to the same branch of knowledge. Statements too of the Leading Principles of Jurisprudence, and Applications of them to the Codes of different Nations, cannot fail to be instructive, and shall not unfrequently be introduced. And the General Principles of Police, and the Perfections and Imperfections of the Regulations of this sort which are established in this and other Countries, will often engage attention,

In the scheme here delineated, the publishers are persuaded there are several advantages which will not escape attention. The total neglect of arrangement in all the Periodical Publications in Great Britain, and in most of those upon the continent, a disadvantage of so great importance, and which has been so long regretted, they have with great care endeavoured to supply; and they flatter themselves that they may at least say of the arrangement which they have adopted, that it is simple, new, and commodious. They are persuaded that by its means, notwithstanding the number of subjects of which they propose to treat, they shall be able to avoid all danger of confusion, as well as of presenting their Readers with nothing but disjointed paragraphs on a multitude of different topics,



As rapidity and frequency of communication are two of the chief advantages of a Periodical Work, it is proposed to furnish these to the Encouragers of this performance in a more perfect manner than is done by any paper appropriated to Philosophy and Literature. It is to be published once a week, stamped like a News-paper, and distributed post free to all parts of the kingdom. This circumstance restricts the size of a Number to a single sheet; but as that shall be the largest allowed by Act of Parliament, the Number will consist of Sixteen Pages of the size of a moderate quarto.

The Projectors of this Work are happy to add, that their plan has received the approbation, and is promised the support of some of the most eminent Literary Characters of the age; they account it of much consequence to them to be able to declare, that among these are some of the most distinguished Members of that excellent Institution, the LITERARY FUND.

They have been induced to think, that it would be an accommodation to Authors and Booksellers, and to the Literary World in general, to have some one Periodical Print where Advertisements of Books, and other objects connected with Literature, are exclusively admitted. This Paper therefore is offered as a proper vehicle for such intelligence where all the purposes of early communication will be sufficiently answered, and the more important business of the Paper can never be materially interrupted by the number of Advertisements.

The First Number of the LITERARY JOURNAL, Price One Shilling, will be published on Thursday morning, the 6th of January, 1803, and will be continued regularly every Thursday. It will be distributed in town by the regular newsmen, and after the manner of a Morning Paper. And it will be forwarded to the country on application to any of the news-venders, to the Clerks of the Roads at the General Post Office, or to the Printer.

As the Numbers of a year will form a commodious volume, an additional Number, containing a Title Page, Index, &c. will be published at the conclusion of each year.

The Work will be printed on a fine wove paper, and in a superior manner, at the Printing-Office of Mr. BALDWIN, in Union-street, New Bridge-street, to whom alone Communications are to be addressed, and by whom Advertisements will be received.



*PHILOSOPHY CORRECTED BY PHILOSOPHY.*

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ON the return of Peace, and, it is to be hoped, of a disposition in Europe to listen to the voice, and to follow the investigations of Reason, it is thought, that a regular and philosophic revision of those general Truths and general Errors, the hostilities of which, like those of the Gods and Titans, have nearly involved the World in desolation, might be extremely useful, possibly in the production of new Truths; probably, in diminishing the expedients of Error and the resources of Imposture; and, certainly, in furnishing subjects of profitable meditation to the members of a British Parliament, summoned to their august duties at a period highly important to the character and happiness of the United Kingdom.

It is therefore proposed to publish, periodically, a Paper, or Essay, entitled "EGERIA, or Elementary Studies on the Progress of Nations in Political Œconomy, Legislation and Government."

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The First Number was published on Saturday the 4th December 1802; the Second on the 18th; the Third on Friday the 24th; and the succeeding Numbers will follow as regularly as possible.

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*Printed for T. Cadell jun. and W. Davies, Strand:*

To whom, or to their respective Booksellers, Gentlemen desirous of being supplied with the Work, are requested to address their Orders.

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Printed by Wilson and Co. in Wild Court,

PHILOSOPHY CORRELATED BY PHILOSOPHY

the return of Europe, and it is to be hoped of a  
disposition in Europe to listen to the voice, and to fol-  
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a regular and philosophical revision of those general  
notions and general facts, the positions of which  
have been of the Code and Law, have nearly in-  
volved the World in desolation might be extremely  
useful, especially in the production of new truths; pro-  
bably in describing the expected of error and the  
recurrence of ignorance, and certainly in furnishing  
subjects of great utility in the history of a  
theoretical philosophy, and in the study of the  
in a period highly important to the character and dig-  
nity of the United Kingdom.  
It is therefore proposed to publish, periodically, a  
Page, or Essay, entitled "ESSAYS, or ELEMENTARY  
Sketches of the Progress of Nations in Political Econ-  
omy, Legislation and Government."

The First Number was published on Saturday the  
4th December 1801, the second on the 1st  
the Third on Friday the 1st, and the succeeding  
Numbers will follow as regularly as possible.

Printed by J. Smith, at the "Star and Garter,"  
in the Strand, near the Theatre Royal, London.  
To which are added, various other works, and  
a list of the names of the subscribers.

*Prospectus of Two New Daily Papers,*  
To be Published on the FIRST of JANUARY 1803;

The one, a MORNING PAPER,

ENTITLED,

**THE BRITISH PRESS:**

The other, an EVENING PRINT, entitled,

**THE GLOBE;**

OR,

**LITERARY ADVERTISER.**

---

IN proposing this new establishment, it is not the intention of the Booksellers of London, by whom it is undertaken, to assert any arrogant claims of rivalry, or to invade any property that may be already established by public favour. If what is now offered had professed merely to give a wider diffusion to political intelligence, or to serve the other accustomed purposes of a newspaper, it would have been difficult to prove that it was necessary, or to question whether, for all useful objects, the channels of such intelligence were not sufficiently wide. The Proprietors of THE BRITISH PRESS, and THE GLOBE OR LITERARY ADVERTISER, however, flatter themselves that the chief part of their plan is entirely new, and highly expedient. It has long been in contemplation, and is loudly called for by the extensive and increasing interests of Literature.

It is not objected here, that other periodical Papers and Journals have been wholly inattentive to the concerns of the learned world; but, from the nature of their plans, they have been able to allot but a part, and experience has too often proved,



proved, a very insufficient part, to objects of this kind. Even advertisements of books, so indispensable to the proper publication of every work, and of which an early insertion is in many cases equally indispensable, have been detained from the public eye until they have become in a great measure useless, and, either from neglect or necessity, have been placed in obscure corners, and often mixed with notices scarcely fit for publication.

An establishment, therefore, of this nature, the primary object of which is Literature in all its various branches and relations, has been long a *desideratum*, and it is presumed that it could not have been undertaken with more propriety, and with more reasonable hopes of success, than by the Booksellers of London, who, deeply interested in whatever concerns learning and learned men, and connected immediately or remotely with the *literati* of the whole kingdom, must naturally be the sources of every information respecting them which can be demanded by public curiosity. If, as has been generally acknowledged, they are now the principal patrons of learning, they may consistently hope, that a plan will be favourably received, the chief aim of which is to extend that patronage, by giving additional celebrity to the writings with which they may be intrusted, and by removing many obstacles which at present impede the mutual advantages of Author and Publisher, lessen the value of Copyright, and must ultimately repress Genius, by weakening its resources.

To accomplish these purposes, it has long been thought, by every person acquainted with the subject, that a Paper or Papers of the kind now offered, may be so conducted as to embrace all the concerns of Literature, and supply the reader with regular and authentic information of the state of Science and of the Fine Arts, not only in our own country, but, by an extensive correspondence, in every other country where Literature is cultivated. THE BRITISH PRESS, and THE GLOBE OR LITERARY ADVERTISER, will, in the first instance, contain the earliest Advertisements of all Books published in the Metropolis,

polis, or imported for publication, together with notices of intended publications, and new editions; early and accurate analyses of literary Works, foreign or domestic; accounts of the purchase, sale, or dispersion of curious and valuable libraries; articles of history, so much the subject of rational inquiry and conversation, and anecdotes of living characters whose eminence has attracted general curiosity; sketches of improvements in every branch of science, and those many other interesting particulars respecting the state of knowledge and the efforts of genius, which can seldom be communicated with such precision and authenticity as may be effected from the parties concerned in this undertaking.

Notwithstanding it is thus avowed that *THE BRITISH PRESS*, and *THE GLOBE OR LITERARY ADVERTISER* will be devoted principally to the objects enumerated, it is the intention of the Proprietors that they shall, in their other departments, maintain a rank as distinguished as any other newspapers, by containing the usual portion of intelligence relative to all other interesting subjects. The earliest and most authentic foreign information, the debates in parliament, law reports, and the numerous other topics which constitute a newspaper, will be detailed with all possible fidelity, and to an extent proportioned to their importance. For this purpose engagements have been formed with men of ability and information, capable of arranging these departments into regular and authentic records of the times. And while the Proprietors, from their extensive connections in every part of the kingdom, flatter themselves that *THE BRITISH PRESS*, and *THE GLOBE OR LITERARY ADVERTISER* shall soon obtain such a circulation as will render them most eligible vehicles for advertisements, they beg leave to observe, that no species of advertisements will be excluded, except the indecent and nauseous addresses of quackery and imposture, which have too long disgraced the pages of our most respectable papers. Periodical writers can never appear to more advantage than when they assume the guardianship of public morals;

morals; and however confined their influence may be, they can at least reject any insult to public decency.

In times of political dissension, it may be necessary to declare the principles by which that important branch of these Papers will be guided. Aware that promises may be misrepresented as well as distrusted, and that the Public must ultimately judge by what is executed rather than by what is proposed, it may be sufficient here to avow, that the great constitutional principles of the British Monarchy will form the basis of any remarks that may be advanced on public men or measures. The grand object will be to ascertain and communicate facts, rescued from the disguise or gloss of party; and to exercise the privileges of discussion with a due respect to constituted authorities, to personal worth, with a becoming reverence to the rights and privileges of other governments and nations, and with the liberality that may be expected in prints devoted to the information and amusement of scholars and of gentlemen.

These Papers will be published at the office, No. 13, Salisbury-Square, Fleet-street; where advertisements, orders and other communications will be received, and all letters to the Editor (*post paid*) are to be addressed.

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